


HUGO'S

**HOW
TO AVOID
INCORRECT
ENGLISH**



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HOW TO AVOID INCORRECT ENGLISH

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PREFACE

We do not believe in giving exaggerated importance to mere technicalities. It is our opinion, founded on long experience, that constant practice in the application of a few simple rules provides the student with a much easier way to success than does the acquisition of any amount of pure theory. If, therefore, PART III. of this little book contains some matter which may be thought difficult or even useless, let it be borne in mind that this Part IS ACTUALLY A DICTIONARY, AND NOT MATERIAL FOR SYSTEMATIC LEARNING. A dictionary must, of course, be as complete as possible within its own limits ; but it does not follow that it should be regarded as a text-book and used as such.

After all, it will not be denied that speaking or writing correctly can be achieved without a profound study of grammar. Nor will anybody be branded as illiterate merely for the breach of some minor rules which are insisted upon only by strict grammarians. Thus, to say : "It's me," or "He only did it yesterday," instead of : "It's I," "He did it only yesterday," cannot be stigmatized, except by a pedant, as a heinous offence.

There are, however, mistakes that should never be committed, even by those who have never looked at a grammar. Sentences such as : "We acted like you did," "He is taller than me," "She remained oblivious to my presence," are, in some respects, like bad manners in social life : they never pass unnoticed and uncondemned. The fact that these serious errors are extremely common makes it difficult, no doubt, for many people to avoid them ; but it goes without saying that such solecisms cannot be excused on the ground of their prevalence. They should be completely eschewed by all those who have any education, and who must, therefore, feel it incumbent upon them to do their part in preserving the purity of the English language.

It is mostly with faults of this description that the first part of the book is concerned. The way to keep clear of them is shown as briefly and lucidly as possible, while other mistakes which, although less reprehensible, should nevertheless be carefully avoided, are also noted and corrected. A perusal of this first section will tax very lightly the reader's time and energy ; but it will, we think, well repay him for any effort required. Surely it must be worth his while to give some attention to the points dealt with if by so doing he can avoid the conviction or even the mere suspicion of illiteracy.

Some practical information will be found in the second part with regard to the correct use of a number of expressions and idioms. This part also provides guidance on some doubtful points.

Concerning the section comprised in pages 77-122, in the third part, students should notice that **ALTHOUGH IT CONTAINS ALL THAT IS IMPORTANT IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR, IT IS INTENDED MAINLY FOR REFERENCE.** They should consult it when they need an explanation of the terms used in Parts I. & II., or when they wish to know the exact meaning of some technical expression which they have met with in the course of their reading. Similarly, the few pages on "Parsing" and "Analysis of Sentences" need not be studied except by those who desire to go more closely into the nature and construction of sentences.

On the other hand, pages 63-72 should be carefully studied by all learners who wish to master the main principles of the English language

It will thus be seen that this little work is not a conventional manual of grammar and composition. Its compilers intend it as a simple and handy reference book on some important points relating to speech and writing, and if it provides practical help in the everyday use of the mother tongue, it will have fulfilled its purpose.

PART 1

COMMON ERRORS IN EXPRESSION AND GRAMMAR.

PLEONASM, VULGARISMS, COLLOQUIALISMS, JOURNALESE, WRONG IDIOMS, ETC.

PLEONASM (or TAUTOLOGY).—A needless repetition of the same idea in different words :

You will admire the scenery, while at the same time enjoying the pure and refreshing sea-breeze.

He returned it back to me.

They came one after the other in succession.

COLLOQUIALISM.—A word or expression that can be used in the spoken, but not in the written language.

I have got it.

He has a lot of books.

What you have done is quite all right.

An extreme form of colloquialism is SLANG.

JOURNALESE.—The use often made in the daily press of unusual or pretentious words (sometimes distorted from their right meaning), like : eventuate, evince, materialize, transpire ; —of such adjectives as : gigantic, stupendous, amazing, etc., etc., in cases where they are an obvious exaggeration ;—or of verbose sentences for what could well be expressed in fewer words : “ The prospects of considerable periods of genial holiday weather are by no means negligible.” (These faults in writing are due either to haste,—which leads to the use of “ clichés,” i.e., hackneyed phrases,—or to a mistaken desire for novelty).

aggravate

CORRECT :

You are 'aggravating' her.

worrying,
annoying,
etc.

'Aggravate' means : to make something worse. It is used in colloquial English to mean : to annoy, exasperate, etc., but its use in that sense should, of course, be avoided in writing.

aim to

They aim, in fact, at overthrowing

They are, in fact, aiming 'to overthrow' the present system. Wrong idiom.

alternative

There is, however, a 'third alternative.'

a third
course,
plan, etc.

There can be no THIRD alternative, the word 'alternative' meaning a choice of one of TWO things.

as ever

I will leave as soon as 'ever' I can.

omit : ever

Vulgarism.

as to

I was wondering 'as to' what I should do next.

omit : as to

Pleonastic use of "as to."—A very common error.

equally as . . . asI can do it
equally well ;
or, I can do it
as well as you

I can do it 'equally as well as you.'

"Equally as well as" is an obvious pleonasm.

as I think

This practice is, as I think, a very dangerous one.

I think, or, in
my opinion

In the above sentence, the word "as" is superfluous.

a few years back

This happened a few years 'back.'

ago

Colloquialism.

return back, refer back

They determined to refer 'back' to the original owner for information.

omit : back

He returned it 'back' to me.

The prefix "re" meaning "again" or "back," the above examples are pleonasms. "Refer back" is a very common mistake. ("Refer" comes from the Latin "referre," "ferre" meaning : to carry).

balance

CORRECT :

The 'balance' of the year will be devoted to the building of ships.

rest, or,
remainder

We can speak of the balance of an account (a difference between two amounts of money),*but not of the balance of a period.

between . . . or

You must choose between him 'or' me.

and

"Between" cannot be followed by "or."

between each

The amount was divided between 'each' member.

all the mem-
bers, or,
among the
members

"Between" cannot be followed by "each."

but . . . however

He was refused admission several times, 'but' persisted 'however' in his efforts.

omit
however

Pleonasm. "But" and "however" mean the same thing.

calculate or reckon

I 'calculate' (or 'reckon') he is a clever man.

believe

Americanism. Not to be recommended.

chronic

The heat was 'chronic' yesterday.

intense

Gross illiteracy. "Chronic" comes from the Greek "chronos" (time), and means : of long duration, inveterate. It has nothing to do with the idea expressed by : bad, severe, intense, remarkable, etc., and its use in this sense is extremely vulgar.

conservative

On a 'conservative' estimate, the profits will be large enough for a 10 per cent. dividend to be paid on the ordinary shares.

moderate

"Conservative" should not be used in this sense ; its proper meaning is "disposed to maintain existing conditions."

content oneself by . . .

CORRECT :

I had to content myself 'by' writing a strongly worded letter to the Directors of the Company.

with

Wrong idiom.

continue to remain

He 'continued' to 'remain' inflexible.

He remained inflexible.

Such a careless example of pleonasm is inexcusable.

it depends who . . .

It depends 'who' did it.

The question is who did it.

Colloquialism. In its proper use, "depend" must be followed by "on" or "upon."

differ

The colour 'differs' according to the material.

varies

"Differ" means "to be different from," and cannot be followed by "according."

different (used for differently)

He says so, but I think 'different.'

differently

Anyone committing this very bad error of using an adjective for an adverb shows that he is illiterate.

different . . . than

"When M. L. came to see me, it was for an entirely different object than that which has caused me to write to-day."

for an object entirely different from that which

It is not absolutely certain that "different to" is a solecism ; but there is no doubt that "different than" is one, and one of the worst kind.

different to

This is quite different 'to' what he said.

from

"Different to" is regarded by most grammarians as a solecism. "Different from" agrees with the etymology and should always be used.

due to

CORRECT :

I shall have to remain at home, 'due' to the serious trouble that has overtaken me.

owing to

"Due" is an adjective and must be used to refer to a noun or pronoun, e.g. "The rent is due," "His success was due to application." On the other hand we must say : "He succeeded owing to his application", using the compound preposition "owing to" to introduce the adverb-phrase qualifying "succeeded."

either of the three

'Either of the three' will do.

any one of the three

"Either" cannot be used when more than two persons or things are referred to.

entitled to

Having done the damage, you are entitled to pay for it.

liable

"Entitled to" means "having a right to," and should not be confused with "liable to."

rise equal to

will rise to the occasion, or, will be equal to the occasion

Do you think he will rise 'equal' to the occasion ?
Confusion of two idioms.

expect

We 'expect' the work was finished yesterday.
'Expect' refers to future, and except colloquially should not be used when we speak of the past.

think, suppose, believe, etc.

eventuate

happen

What we expected did not 'eventuate.'
Journalese. "Eventuate" is a pretentious word and should be avoided.

seldom or ever

They are seldom 'or ever' in town on that day.
Vulgarism.

or never, or, seldom if ever

facilitate

The Customs Officers were 'facilitated' in their task by the traveller's readiness to comply with their directions.

helped ; or, the task of the Customs Officers was facilitated by . . .

'Facilitate' is to render a THING easy. It cannot be used for persons.

few and fewer**CORRECT :**

The excursionists were in a 'fewer' number than usual.

in a smaller number, or, were fewer

"Few" and "fewer" cannot be used with a noun in the singular.

a comparatively few

There were 'a' comparatively few persons on the beach.

omit : a

as follow

The words used on this occasion were 'as follow.'

as follows

The recognised idiom is "as follows," even although the grammar of the sentence seems to require a plural.

have a glance of

I could just 'have a glance of' the monument.
Wrong idiom.

take a glance at

take a glimpse at

I could just 'take a glimpse at' the monument.
Wrong idiom.

get a glimpse of

goodself, goodselves

We have already mentioned the matter to 'your goodself' in a previous letter.

you

"Goodself" and "goodselves" are not English words.

at close hand

He was able to follow the negotiations 'at close hand.'

Wrong idiom.

at close quarters, or, near at hand

hardly . . . than

He had 'hardly' entered 'than' his nephew arrived.

no sooner . . . than, or, hardly entered when . . .

Confusion of two constructions. "Than" must follow a comparative; "hardly" is not one.

hardly (used instead of **hard**)

He squandered his 'hardly' earned salary.

In this idiom, "hard" being already an adverb, there is no need to add the termination *ly*.

CORRECT :

hard

can help

I shall certainly not do it more often 'than I can help.'

than I must

This illogical colloquialism "more than I can help" really means the contrary, i.e. "more than I cannot help". However, the expression is so common even among educated people, that it is somewhat pedantic to object to it.

individual

We do not know this 'individual.'

person, man,
woman, etc.

An "individual" is a private person as opposed to a group or body. Ex. : The country is governed, not by Parliament as a whole, but by a few individuals exercising the real authority.

The wrong use of "individual" is very common.

indulge in

He 'indulges' in a vast amount of work.

takes
pleasure in
doing

"Indulge" can only be used with reference to amusements, etc., but cannot be said of any action which usually requires a more or less painful effort.

infer

Your letter seems to 'infer' that I have refused to see him.

imply, or,
suggest

"Infer" being "to draw a conclusion from" must have as subject a word denoting a person. It would be correct to say : I infer from your letter that you will refuse to see him.

irreparable

Mr. X—'s death is a sad blow to his party ; men of his stamp are 'irreparable.'

irreplaceable

"Irreparable" is said of things only, never of persons.

lay, lie

The books are 'laying' on the table.

CORRECT :

lying

These two verbs are often confused. "To lay" is a transitive verb, i.e., it denotes an action performed upon a person or thing, e.g., I lay the books on the table; "to lie" is intransitive, as in : The books lie on the table. The following are the present, the past, and the perfect tenses of the two verbs :

<i>I lay (the carpet)</i>	<i>I laid</i>	<i>I have laid</i>
<i>I am laying (the carpet)</i>	<i>I was laying</i>	<i>I have been laying</i>
<i>I lie (down)</i>	<i>I lay</i>	<i>I have lain</i>
<i>I am lying (down)</i>	<i>I was lying</i>	<i>I have been lying</i>

lest

Let him be on the watch, lest he 'fails' at the last minute.

should fail,
or, fail

"Lest" requires a subjunctive.

like

I shall reply 'like' you did.

as

Are you still fond of music, 'like' you used to be?

as

It is vulgar to use "like" as a subordinating conjunction, and such a construction should be most carefully avoided. (See p. 118 for explanation of a subordinating conjunction.)

In its correct use "like" is an adjective having the peculiar property of being followed by a noun or pronoun in the accusative case :

He is like his *father* ; but he is not like *me*.

The purely adjectival use of "like" is seen in this sentence : *Like* causes produce *like* effects.

likewise

We sent him some flowers, 'likewise' a basket of fruit.

and (also)

"Likewise" is an adverb ; only illiterate persons use it as a conjunction.

to materialize

That is what we expected ; but it did not 'materialize.'

happen

Journallese. "Materialize" means : to render material ; it should not be used instead of : to be realized, to happen.

to a great measure**CORRECT :**

His failure was 'to a great measure' the result of
carelessness.

Wrong idiom.

to a great
extent, or, in
a great
measure

mostly

That kind of material is 'mostly bought' by the
poor.

bought
mainly, or,
chiefly

(a) "mostly" is misplaced, since it refers to the phrase
"by the poor."

(b) "Mainly" or "chiefly" are often more elegant than
the colloquial "mostly."

mutual

Our 'mutual' friend Mr. X— will be here.

common

If Smith is a friend of Robinson, and of Brown, he is
the common friend of those two. To say that he is
their mutual friend is to imply that there is a reciprocal
relationship between Robinson and Brown ; but these
two might be enemies. In any case, if they are not, we
are not thinking about the relationship between them,
but their separate relationship with Brown.

It would however be quite correct to say : This arrange-
ment will be to our mutual advantage.

negotiate

Will he be able to 'negotiate' the difficulty ?

overcome

"To negotiate" means : to treat with respect to pur-
chase, sale, or diplomacy. There is no justification for
using it in the sense of "overcome."

oblivious to

He has been 'oblivious to' his duties.

of

"Oblivious to" is as bad as it is common. No mistake
can be more serious, even in journalism.

free of

Are you free 'of' worry ?

from

(See following example).

received of**CORRECT :**

Received 'of' Mr. Blank the sum of . . .

from

Frequently used as it is, the above expression will remain an illiteracy so long as etymology and grammar require the verb "receive" to be followed by "from."

one of the . . . if not the . . .

You are one of the worst if not the worst offender.

one of the
worst offenders,
if not
the worst

"One of the worst" must be followed by the plural "offenders"; but only the singular "offender" is expressed. In the corrected form, the singular "offender" can properly be understood after "if not the worst."

not only

This artist is 'not only known' for his great talent, but also for his extreme kindness.

known not
only . . .

She 'not only found him' consoled, but even happy.

she found
him not
only

"Not only" should be placed immediately before the word or phrase to which it refers. In the above examples, "not only" refers to "for his great talent" and "consoled," not to "known" and "found."

only

'only arrived' yesterday.

strictly :
arrived only
died only

He 'only died' last month.

The adverb "only" is frequently misplaced, though where it is separated by not more than one word from the word to which it refers, and where there is no danger of ambiguity, such use need not be condemned.

in order that

I gave them some money, in order that they 'could' settle in Australia.

might

"In order that" must be followed by : may, might, or should.

other than

CORRECT :

(a) Visitors are requested not to bathe 'other than' where indicated on this board.

in places
other than
those
indicated . . .

"Other" being an adjective, not an adverb, cannot qualify the verb "bathe."

(b) How could I feel 'other than' delighted at the prospect of such a journey?

otherwise
than

Same remark as above.

otherwise

We want to discover his honesty or 'otherwise.'

whether he
is honest or
not

"Otherwise" is an adverb, but is here wrongly used in place of a noun (dishonesty). Writers should be on their guard against this careless use of "otherwise."

percentage

The Rev. Mr. Chadband complained that the 'percentage' of his parishioners who attended the morning service had greatly diminished.

number

"Percentage" should not be used except in mathematics, statistics, commerce, etc.

populace

The King and Queen were warmly acclaimed by the 'populace.'

people,
crowd

Although "populace" is used every day in newspapers as meaning "people, crowd," it really means "rabble."

possible

This is not 'possible to be carried through.'

This is 'possible to effect.'

Wrong idiom.

it is not possible to carry this through; it is possible to effect this, or, this can be effected

prefer

Would you prefer giving way 'rather than' fighting?

to fighting, or would you give way rather than fighting?

We prefer one thing "to" another, not "than" another.

more preferable

CORRECT :

Is this not ' more preferable ? '

omit : more

A pleonasm of this kind is inexcusable.

prevail

Did you prevail ' over ' him to do it ?

upon

" To prevail over someone " is to get the better of him ;

" to prevail upon someone " to do a thing is to induce him to do it.

provided thatHe will certainly take that desperate course, if
' provided that ' they refuse to help him.

" Provided that " is sometimes used wrongly instead of " if." But it would be correct to say : He will certainly do the work provided that they help him, because " provided that " introduces a clause stating a condition whose fulfilment HE demands before HE will undertake the work. In the first example " provided that " introduces no such clause.

quicker (used as adverb)

He did it ' quicker ' than you.

more quickly

" Quick " is not among the few adjectives which, like " contrary," " previous," etc., can be used as adverbs.

quite all right

This is ' quite ' all right.

omit : quite

Colloquial pleonasm.

the reason is becauseIf I did not write sooner, the reason is ' because ' that
I could not obtain the information required.

" Because " meaning " for the reason that," the above sentence is equivalent to the following : the reason is for the reason that . . . an obvious tautology.

recipient

CORRECT :

Mr. X— 'was the recipient of' the highest possible distinction. received

Why use four words when one, viz. "received," expresses the meaning?

consider as

The work is 'considered as' unsatisfactory. Wrong idiom. "Consider" cannot be followed by "as."

regarded as,
or, con-
sidered un-
satisfactory

resentful at

I was resentful 'at' his behaviour.

of, or, indig-
nant at

resentment to . . .

I cannot express the resentment I feel 'to' his behaviour.

at

respectively

"When President Carnot and the Empress of Austria were 'respectively' assassinated by anarchists."

omit :
respectively

It is difficult to see how the two above named personages could have been killed otherwise than respectively.— "Respective" and "respectively" are frequently used where they add nothing at all to the meaning. They are, of course, correct when they really mean "belonging to each," "concerning each," as in : The officers were given places according to their respective ranks.

the same

We have received your order and shall write to you to-morrow respecting 'the same.'

respecting it,
on the
matter, etc.

"Same" and "the same" used as pronouns, are not correct. Even in commercial letters this use is now disappearing.

scarcely . . . than

He had 'scarcely' finished 'than' his friend entered.

no sooner . . .
than, or,
scarcely . . .
when

The reason why this mistake occurs so frequently is that in the mind of the writer or speaker "scarcely," referring to time, is equivalent to "no sooner." Grammatically, however, it cannot be regarded as a comparative and be followed by "than."

ago since**CORRECT :**

It is **hardly** four years 'ago' since the matter was first discussed.

that, or, it is hardly four years since . .

"Since" used with "ago" is a faulty repetition of the same idea.

stop

(a) I have decided to 'stop' at home to-day.

remain

Colloquialism.

(b) He tried to 'stop¹ me obtaining²' the post.

to prevent me from obtaining, or, to prevent my obtaining

1.—"Stop" is very often used colloquially instead of "prevent."

2.—"Obtaining" is a gerund or verb-noun ; therefore it requires the possessive MY, not the accusative ME. For this very common error, see page 29.

substitute

They 'substituted' the old piano 'by' a new one.

Confusion of the two idioms "substitute for" and "replace by."

they substituted a new piano for the old one, or, they replaced the old piano by a new one

such

"He knew their shortcomings. And it seemed to him that Mrs. X— was remarkably free from 'such.'"

'such defects, or, from them

"Such" should not be made to do the work of a pronoun, however frequently it may be thus misused.

This mistake is very inelegant.

such like

They had in abundance fruit, vegetables, and 'such like.'

the like

Vulgarism.

superior . . . than

In the last rounds especially, the Australian champion showed himself much superior in all points 'than' his opponent.

to

Wrong idiom.

that (used as adverb)

CORRECT :

She was 'that' furious that she could hardly so very speak.

Very vulgar.

think to

Will you 'think to' bring the book I want? remember to

together

They were conversing together.

omit :
together

An obvious pleonasm.

transpire

We waited an hour to see if any statement would be made about what had 'transpired.' happened

This is indeed a very ugly solecism. "Transpire" means "to be divulged," "become known," a totally different idea from that conveyed by the verb "happen," for which it is frequently used by journalists and others.

unique

This is 'somewhat' (or 'rather') unique.

omit : some-
what, or,
rather

A thing is unique when it is the only one of its kind. Therefore, it cannot be more or less unique.

universally . . . all

His conduct was 'universally' blamed by 'all' present. omit :
universally

Such pleonasms are due to sheer carelessness.

various of . . .

'Various of them' dissented.

some, or,
several of
them

"Various" is an adjective, not a pronoun.

very

He has been 'very' upset.

greatly, or,
very much

"Very" and "much" can be used with some participles, but not with others. As no rule can be given, a safe plan, when there is any doubt concerning the use of "very" and "much," is to have recourse to some other adverb, such as : greatly, very much, etc.

if I was

CORRECT :

If I ' was ' free, I should leave at once.

were

"Was" is here a vulgarism. The subjunctive mood "were" should be used to indicate that the condition cannot be fulfilled.

whatever

' Whatever ' have you done !

What HAVE you done !

Or
(less elegant)
What on earth, etc.

Vulgarism.—Spelt in two words : what ever,—it is a mere colloquialism. The same remark applies to : however, wherever, whoever, whenever, etc., used interrogatively.

while at the same time

omit : at the same time

He promised to give us a reply, ' while at the same time ' we could be communicating with our friends.

An example of careless repetition of ideas.

without hardly

They succeeded ' without hardly ' making any effort.

almost without making,
or, with hardly any effort

Confusion of two idioms.

wonder if . . . not

I should not be surprised (or, I should not wonder) if he ' did not ' succeed.

if he succeeded

A common colloquial error. The sentence uncorrected means : His failure would not surprise me. This is just the reverse of what is actually meant.

write someone re . . .

I shall write ' him ' shortly ' re ' his friend's health.

to him,
concerning,
about, etc.

(a) "To" should not be omitted before the indirect object of "write" when there is no direct object. But it is, of course, quite correct to say : I shall write him a long letter, etc.

(b) "Re" belongs exclusively to commercial and official style. It should never be used anywhere else.

**ERRORS IN CONCORD ;
UNRELATED or FALSELY RELATED PARTICIPLES ;
WRONG CONSTRUCTIONS, ETC.**

(All the grammatical terms used in the following pages are fully explained and illustrated in PART III.)

1.

CORRECT :

The whole range of mountains 'are' visible from
the sea. is

Neither of the ladies 'were' very kind to us. was

'Are' either of these parcels yours ? is

In the above examples, the verb should be in the singular, because the subject (range, neither, either) is in the singular.

A verb agrees in number (and person), with its subject.

2.

On his desk 'was' a book and a bundle of papers. were

The King, with his Ministers, 'were' received was
with enthusiasm.

His boy, as well as mine, 'have' made good has
progress.

(a) When a verb has two subjects connected by
"and," the verb is plural.

(Exception : If two or more singular subjects
are meant to express one idea, the verb is singular : Bread and cheese is a nourishing food).

(b) When a singular subject has attached to it a
phrase introduced by "with" or "as well as,"
the verb is singular.

3.

Either your partner or his clerk 'have' made a has
mistake.

Neither Arthur nor John 'know' anything knows
about it.

Two singular subjects separated by "either . . . or,"
"neither . . . nor," govern the verb in the singular.

4.

CORRECT :

Neither Arthur nor his sisters ' was ' present.

were

Neither Charles nor I ' has ' replied to the letter.

have

If the subjects separated by " neither . . . nor " are of different number or person, the verb agrees with the nearest subject.

5.

Everybody has ' their ' failings.

his

Nobody in ' their ' senses would dream of doing it.

his

Each endeavours to succeed in ' their ' own way.

his

" Everybody, each, every, nobody, anybody," etc., must be followed by verbs, pronouns, and adjectives in the singular.

" None " (no one) is strictly singular : None without a ticket was admitted. But it is often used idiomatically in the plural : None (not any) but ticket holders were admitted.

6.

The two sisters loved ' one another ' most tenderly.

each other

Should not men love ' each other ' ?

one another

" Each other " is used when we speak of two persons or things, and " one another " when we speak of more than two.

7.

Each boy and girl ' have ' received a good education.

has

Every book and every manuscript ' have ' been entered in our catalogue.

has

If the subject consists of two or more singular nouns connected by " and " and preceded by " each " or " every," the verb is in the singular.

8.

CORRECT :

This meeting approves of the suggestion made by
'their' chairman.

its, or,
approve . . .
their . . .

The Cabinet was summoned for ten o'clock, when
'they' met at the Prime Minister's residence.

it, or, were
summoned

The Committee do not agree, although 'it is'
unwilling to reject the offer altogether.

they are, or,
does not . . .
it is . . .

A collective noun* is actually singular. It may, however, take a plural verb if the collection is spoken of as consisting of several individuals, rather than considered as a whole. But :

Collective nouns* should not be made singular in one part of the sentence and plural in the other part.

9.

I do not like 'these' kind of things.

this

'Those' sort of men should always be avoided.

that

The demonstrative adjectives* 'this' and 'that' agree in number with the nouns which they point out (kind, sort, singular).

(To avoid saying : this kind of things and that sort of men, the phrase may be altered thus : this kind of thing, or : things of this kind ; that sort of man, or : men of that sort).

10.

They have just lost their mother, 'she' whom
they loved so tenderly.

her

Are we not friends, you and 'me' ?

I

"Her" and "I" are respectively in apposition to "their mother" (accusative case,* as object of "have lost,") and "we" (nominative case,* as subject of "are").

A noun or pronoun agrees in case with the noun or pronoun to which it stands in apposition.*

*See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

11.

CORRECT :

They ordered my brother and 'I' to begin at once.	me
'Who' can this be from? (from 'whom' . . .)	whom
'Who' do you think he recommended to me? (he recommended 'whom,' do you think?)	whom
Between you and 'I,' she is not very clever.	me
Someone, I forget 'who,' gave us the information.	whom

"Between" and "from" are prepositions. "Ordered," "recommended" and "forget" are transitive verbs.

The accusative case is governed by prepositions* and transitive verbs.*

12.

If you were 'him,' what would you do?	he
Are you the laundress? I am 'her.'	she
Who is guilty? Is it 'him' or 'them'?	he, they
It is 'me' that say so.	I

Predicative pronouns* agree in case with the word to which they refer.

NOTE.—Such colloquial expressions as : "That's me," "it's me," are not, however, considered incorrect.

13.

This is one of the best books that 'has' been written on the subject.	have
He was one of the greatest philosophers that 'has' ever lived.	have

"That," in the above sentences, is subject of "have been written," and "have ever lived." It is plural, because its antecedents, "books," "philosophers," are plural.

A relative pronoun* agrees in number with its antecedent.*

*See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

14.

CORRECT :

(a) This is the work of a musician 'whom' they who
say is a genius.

(b) 'Whom' do you think wrote to me who
yesterday?

A verb must always have a subject, expressed *or*
understood, *and* a subject is always in the nominative
case.*

What is the subject of "is" (a genius) in sentence (a),
and of "wrote" in sentence (b)? It can only be "who."
Therefore, "whom," accusative, is absolutely wrong in
both sentences.

(c) A reward will be given to 'whomsoever'
brings the dog to its owner.

whosoever,
or better : to
anyone who
will bring . . .

"Whomsoever" is the subject of "brings," and there-
fore cannot be in the accusative. Thus we ought to say
"to whoever" or "whosoever," "whosoever" meaning
"any person who . . ." The preposition "to" governs
"any person" or "anyone" (understood), and not
"whoever," "whosoever."

15.

He wrote a curt answer, 'but which' he soon
regretted having sent.

but he soon
regretted
having sent it

He at last found a firm which had a large quantity
of them, 'and which' they had no sale for.

and (which)
had no sale
for them

"And" or "but" should not be used before a
relative pronoun (who, which) unless that relative
pronoun is preceded by another one referring
to the same antecedent.*

*See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

16.

CORRECT :

This is the gold watch which they bought, 'and was' the best they could find.

and which
was, or,
and it was . . .

Our excellent friend Mr. X—, who will come here 'and we shall ask' to attend the meeting.

and whom
we shall ask

A relative pronoun* should not be used as object* in one part of the sentence and as implied subject* in another part, or vice versa.

17.

You are quicker than 'me.'

I

Is she not richer than 'him' ?

he

"Than" is normally a conjunction, not a preposition governing the accusative case. The meaning, in the above sentences, is : than I am, than they are.

But it is correct to say : She loves him better than me, this meaning : better than she loves me. Similarly : You like him as much as me (as you like me), and : You like him as much as I (like him).

18.

(a) St. Peter's at Rome is larger than 'any' church.

any other

(b) St. Peter's at Rome is the largest of 'all other' churches.

of all
churches

(a) "St. Peter's" is included in "any" church.
"Other" must be added.

(b) "St. Peter's" is excluded by the word "other."
"Other" must be omitted.

In sentences like the above, "other" must be used after a comparative,* but not after a superlative.*

*See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

19.

CORRECT :

The condition of the car I have just bought is much better 'than yours.'

than that of yours

The amount they receive in wages is greater 'than twenty years ago.'

than
(that which)
they received
twenty years
ago

Wrong comparisons. Only things which are of the same kind or which have some point in common can be compared. A condition cannot be compared with a car, nor an amount of money with a date.

20.

Vera is the 'prettiest' of the two sisters.

prettier

When two persons or things are compared, the comparative,* not the superlative,* should be used.

21.

I have 'less' friends than he.

fewer

They crossed the Atlantic no 'less' than ten times.

fewer

"Less" is used when we speak of quantity ;
"fewer" when we refer to number.

22.

His last days were spent in Paris, 'working' for a firm of publishers.

where he worked

'Having finished' the page, the book was shut.

when the page was finished, or, having finished the page, he, we, they . . . shut the book.

'Hearing the noise,' the thought crossed my mind that there were burglars in the house.

as soon as I heard, or, hearing . . . I was struck by the thought that . . .

'Trusting to hear from you,' believe us yours truly.

we are yours truly, or, we beg you to believe us . . .

* See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

A participle* should be clearly related to the noun or pronoun it is meant to qualify.

The extremely common mistake pointed out in the foregoing examples deserves careful attention. It can be avoided by the simple process of analyzing the sentence and considering whether the participle actually refers to the noun or pronoun it is intended to qualify.

Note, however, that a **NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE*** construction is perfectly correct. Examples :

This being the case, we shall begin at once.

Tide and weather permitting, the boat will leave at 9 p.m.

All things considered, I prefer not to go.

In the above sentences, the participles (being, permitting, considered) are clearly related to the nouns or pronouns they qualify (this, tide and weather, all things), although the phrase in which they occur is not grammatically connected with the rest of the sentence.

NOTE.—In certain stereotyped phrases, some participles are regularly used without proper grammatical relation. Such usage may now be sanctioned as idiomatic. Examples:

Generally 'speaking,' mistakes do not occur in that department.

'Considering' the circumstances, he did well to gain the post.

In the second sentence, "considering" may be regarded as a preposition.

23.

CORRECT :

Without waiting for a reply, 'a telegram was immediately dispatched' by him to his relative.

he immediately dispatched

Who did not wait for a reply? Not the telegram.
Therefore the construction is not correct.

A gerund* (unless qualified by a possessive adjective)* must have the same (implied) subject* as that of the main verb.*

*See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

24.

CORRECT :

- (a) You cannot forbid 'him' leaving. his
- (b) What is the use of 'you' trying to frighten him? your
- (c) The inefficiency of the management has resulted in the profits 'dwindling' almost to a vanishing point. caused the profits to dwindle
- (a) What is the object of "forbid"? The sense requires that it shall be "leaving," not "him." Therefore, "leaving" is a gerund or verb-noun,*not a participle or verb-adjective* (an adjective cannot be the object of a verb). Being a noun, it should be qualified by the possessive adjective "his" not by the pronoun "him." (In the original sentence, "leaving" is a participle qualifying "him").
- (b) The preposition "of" should govern "trying" instead of "you." The question should not ask : "What is the use of you?" but "What is the use of trying?" Again, therefore, we should use the gerund* preceded by the possessive adjective "your."
- (c) This sentence exemplifies an error which is becoming increasingly common. The meaning intended is that inefficiency has resulted, not in profits, but in the dwindling of profits. Thus dwindling should be a gerund governed by the preposition "in." The sentence, however, cannot be corrected by writing "in the profits' dwindling" on the analogy of (a) and (b); the new phrase would be clumsy. It is therefore necessary to re-cast the sentence in order to avoid the confusion between the participle and the gerund.

25.

Strict regulations 'are endeavoured to be enforced there.'

an endeavour
is being made
to enforce . . .

The new scheme 'is intended to be carried out' next month.

it is intended
to carry
out . . .

If the above very clumsy and incorrect sentences were changed thus : An endeavour is being made to enforce

*See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

strict regulations ;—It is intended to carry out the new scheme, it would be seen at once that “strict regulations” and “the new scheme” are the object of “to enforce” and “carry out,” not of “endeavour” and “intend.” (One cannot endeavour regulations or intend a scheme). And since these words cannot be the object of “endeavour” and “intend” (active voice*), they ought not to be made the subject of “are endeavoured” and “is intended” (passive voice*). We could not say : The ball was hit by Arthur, if the sentence could not be turned into : Arthur hit the ball.

CORRECT :

But it would not be incorrect to write :

Strict regulations are believed to be enforced there ;
The new scheme is reported to be approved by all,
because this would be, in the active :

People believe strict regulations to be enforced there.

They report that the new scheme is approved by all, where “strict regulations” and “the new scheme” are part of the direct object of “believe” and “report.”

26.

(a) I should have liked ‘to have gone,’ but I was prevented.

(b) I intended ‘to have gone,’ but I was prevented.

(c) I was most annoyed with him, and ‘I should like to have prevented’ his going.

to go

to go, or,
to have goneshould have
liked to
prevent

(a) When the main verb already contains “have” (in : “should have liked,” “would have been possible,” “would have been the first to,” etc.), there is no need to use the perfect infinitive* (i.e. the form with “have”). The idea of non-fulfilment is already implied in the main verb.*

(b) After the past tenses of “intend,” “hope,” “expect,” etc., the use of the present infinitive* (to go) is again correct ; but the perfect infinitive* (to have

*See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms

gone) conveniently expresses the notion of non-fulfilment which is not conveyed by the main verb, and it may therefore be allowed to stand as an idiomatic expression.

CORRECT :

- (c) This sentence exhibits complete confusion. The "have" must be used with the main verb and not with the infinitive.

27.

I am afraid I 'will' miss the train.

shall

When 'will' we arrive?

shall

We 'would' be pleased to hear from you by return.

should

"Shall" and "should," not "will" and "would," must be used in the first person when mere futurity is meant. But it is quite correct to say : I will if I can, I would if I could, because these expressions denote the intention of the speaker, not mere futurity.

When "will" and "would" are used in the first person, and "shall" and "should" in the second or third person, the sentence expresses determination, a promise, or a threat : I will be obeyed ; You shall go to the dentist ; I promised that he should be rewarded.

28.

We should be very glad if you 'will' kindly comply with our request.

would

We shall be very glad if you 'would' kindly comply with our request.

will

If "should" and "would" are used in a main clause, "shall" and "will" must not be used in the dependent clause or clauses, and vice versa.

29.

You not only 'ought,' but shall do it.

ought to do it

("ought" must be followed by "to," and an infinitive*)

This is the greatest misfortune that 'ever has' or ever could happen to me.

ever has happened

("that ever has" must be followed by a past participle*)

*See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

You are 'as strong,' if not stronger, than your brother.

("as strong" must be followed by "as")

CORRECT :
as strong as
your brother
if not stronger
than he is
weakened
your case
instead of
strengthen-
ing it

You have weakened 'instead of strengthened' your case.

("instead of" must be followed by a gerund,*not by a past participle*)

if you buy

"Come and inspect our goods. You will not be pressed to buy ; but 'if you should,' you will not find our prices excessive."

"If you should" can only refer to the main verb "be pressed." The writer meant : if you should happen to buy ; but the grammatical meaning is : if you should be pressed to buy.

Words necessary to complete a sentence should not be omitted.

30.

He had scarcely begun to write 'than' Robert entered.

when, or,
no sooner
begun . . .
than . . .

I will not consent 'without' (or 'except') I am given good reasons.

unless

"Scarcely" cannot be followed by "than" ; "when" should be used. "Without" cannot be used before a finite* verb, neither can "except" before a verb in the indicative.*

31.

We did not feel inclined to go into the question ; 'also' we were too busily engaged on other matters.

and we were
also . . . , or,
moreover we
were

"Also" should not, as a rule, begin a sentence, and cannot be used as a conjunction.*

*See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

32.

CORRECT :

She wore an old and 'a' shabby dress.

omit : a

The article* should not, as a rule, be repeated when only one person or thing is referred to.

33.

A large river flows between the old and new town.

the old town
and the new
one

The article should generally be repeated when reference is made to more than one person or thing.

Either he or I am mistaken.

Either I or he is mistaken.

Neither we nor our brother is rich.

Are these sentences grammatically correct? They are. But their clumsiness is such that some other construction must be resorted to. We may say, for instance :

Either he is mistaken or I am.

Either I am mistaken or he is.

We are not rich, nor is our brother.

He is the best man I can think of.

What are you waiting for ?

There is a widespread belief that a sentence should not end with a preposition.* This rule, however, not being in accordance with the practice of the greatest authors, past and present, cannot be considered binding in all cases, and there is full justification for ignoring it whenever a sentence is thereby rendered more fluent and natural. Who would say or write : He is the best man of whom I can think, or : For what are you waiting ?

What was said was words to that effect.

The only explanation of our refusal was the veiled threats contained in his letter.

As the verb must always agree with its subject, the above sentences are not actually wrong, however unpleasant they may sound. But it is preferable to use some other construction. For example :

What was said was something or other to that effect.

Our refusal was entirely due to the veiled threats, etc.

* See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

PART II

NOTES ON IDIOMS, VOCABULARY, SPELLING, PUNCTUATION, etc.

- 1.—IDIOMATIC USE OF PREPOSITIONS.
- 2.—WORDS OF SIMILAR FORM BUT DIFFERENT MEANING.
- 3.—CONSONANTS DOUBLED AT THE END OF WORDS.
- 4.—PLURAL OF FOREIGN NOUNS.—“A” AND “AN.”
- 5.—FRENCH WORDS USED IN ENGLISH.
- 6.—WORDS SOMETIMES MISPRONOUNCED.
- 7.—FULL CONJUGATION OF A VERB.
- 8.—ABRIDGED RULES FOR PUNCTUATION.

IDIOMATIC USE OF PREPOSITIONS

AFTER VERBS, PRONOUNS, NOUNS, AND ADJECTIVES.

A very great number of mistakes being due to the wrong use of prepositions after verbs, pronouns, nouns, and adjectives, the following list should be read once with attention and looked over again from time to time.

absolve from	change with (a person)
abhorrence of	chary of
accord with	cognizant of
acquiesce in	compatible with
acquit of	comply with
admit of	confer on (to bestow upon)
adapted to (purpose)	confer with
adapted for (by nature)	confide in (trust in)
affinity between	confide to (entrust to)
afflict with	conform to
agree with (a person, a state- ment, an opinion)	in conformity with
agree on (a matter or point)	connive at
agree to (a proposal)	consider (not followed by as)
aggravated by	convenient to (person)
alien from	convenient for (purpose)
amenable to	conversant with
averse to or from	correspond with (a person)
bestow upon	correspond to (a thing)
change for (a thing)	consequent upon
	deficient in

die of (not from)	impatient of (things)
derogatory to	incident to
differ from (things)	ineligible for
differ from (a person) in . . . , as to . . .	inspired by
differ with (a person)	instil into
different from	involve in
disappointed of (what we cannot have)	irrespective of
disappointed in (what we have)	negligent of (noun)
dissent from (not to)	oblivious of (not to)
distaste for	martyr for (a cause)
exception to (a rule, or statement)	martyr to (disease, etc.)
glad of (a possession)	part with (things)
glad at (a piece of news)	part from (persons)
guiltless of	preferable to
impatient with (persons)	prevail on (persons)
impatient of (things)	prevail against (things)
impervious to	profuse in
inculcate upon some one (not some one with)	reconcile with (person)
independent of	reconcile to (thing)
indicative of	regard as
inflict upon	responsible for (something)
influence over or with (a person)	responsible to (some one)
influence on, upon, in (per- sons or things)	satisfied with (things)
infuse into some one	satisfied of (a fact)
impatient with (persons)	taste of (food)
	taste for (art, etc.)
	thirst for or after (knowledge)
	unconscious of (not to)

WORDS OF SIMILAR FORM BUT DIFFERENT MEANING.

accept; — except

We **accept** your offer.

All will be present, not even your friend **excepted**.

acceptation; — acceptance

We do not take the word in that **acceptation** (meaning).

The bill was sent for our **acceptance**.

adverse; — averse

In the most **adverse** conditions, he never ceased to pursue his **great**
object in life.

You are not **averse** to a little recreation, are you?

He is **averse** from taking my advice.

affect; — effect

Does this **affect** you in any way?

She **affected** perfect unconcern.

What will be the **effect** of their decision?

He will **effect** the transfer immediately.

apposite; — opposite

The reply was not **apposite** (to the point).

The house is on the **opposite** bank of the river.

appreciative; — appreciable

He did not **show** himself sufficiently **appreciative** of my kindness.

The difference will be **appreciable**.

beneficent; — benevolent

He is the most **beneficent** supporter of the hospital.

Although poor, he has a **benevolent** heart.

canvas; — canvass

A **canvas** tent was erected on the lawn.

Will your friend be prepared to **canvass** for orders?

childish; — childlike

This was, on the part of Mrs. X—, a very childish remark.
This great man had a childlike simplicity.

contemptuous; — contemptible

They showed themselves contemptuous of our offers of help.
What a mean and contemptible trick!

continual; — continuous

We suffered from continual interruptions.
The warships of the battle-squadron formed a continuous line.

council; — counsel

The Common Council approved of the scheme.
He would not follow our counsel.
Counsel was of opinion that they would lose the case.

deficient; — defective

He is deficient in politeness. My typewriter is very defective.

definite; — definitive

Will he give us a definite (precise) answer?
This edition of the works of the great poet must be regarded as
definitive.

deprecate; — depreciate

I strongly deprecate the suggestion that I am not impartial in this
matter.

You always depreciate my efforts.
The shares have depreciated during the last few days.

distinct; — distinctive

Although speaking the same language, the two peoples have a distinct
origin.

Each of the guests wore the distinctive emblems of the Order.

efficient; — effectual; — effective

She is an efficient shorthand-typist.
I found this an effectual method of preventing waste.
Some of the clauses of the Education Act are not intended to become
effective immediately.

emergence; — emergency

Owing to the emergence of unexpected difficulties, the plan must be abandoned.

The Government have proclaimed a state of national emergency.

eminent; — imminent

Mr. X— is one of our most eminent barristers.

The catastrophe is imminent; we may expect it in a few hours.

eruption; — irruption

We witnessed the eruption of Vesuvius.

The enemy made an irruption (inroad, invasion) into the island.

exceedingly; — excessively

They feel exceedingly (greatly) obliged.

I think the price is excessively high.

factitious; — fictitious

Their indignation was entirely factitious (affected).

The shares in this Company have only a fictitious (imaginary) value.

gourmand; — gourmet

Mr. X— is a well known gourmand (greedy, gluttonous man).

Mr. Y— is a well known gourmet (epicure).

immigrant; — emigrant

All the immigrants were detained twenty-four hours on Ellis Island.
England does not want to send emigrants to Brazil.

ingenious; — ingenuous

This young man is a very ingenious mechanic.

I was amused by the child's ingenuous (frank) remarks.

intelligent; — intellectual

The boy is ignorant, but he seems intelligent.

The writer of this book must have intellectual powers of the highest order.

judicious; — judicial

In this difficult situation, his answer was very judicious (marked by wisdom).

The Government will set up a judicial body to settle the conditions in the industry.

luxuriant; — luxurious

She had her **luxuriant** hair cut yesterday.
 Nothing can be more **luxurious** than their town residence.

metal; — mettle

Gold is a heavy **metal**. I will put you on your **mettle**.

notable; — notorious

Your book is a very **notable** one.
 He was a **notorious** swindler.

observation; — observance

Her gift for **observation** was very remarkable.
 They did not attach much weight to **observances** of that kind.

official; — officious

I am not speaking to you in my **official** capacity.
 He annoyed me by his **officious** manners.

practise; — practice

Do you **practise** the piano every day?
 I have given up this **practice** altogether.

primary; — primitive

This is only a **primary** (elementary) school.
 He follows his **primitive** instincts.

principal; — principle

My **principal** (chief, employer) is Mr. X—.
 His **principal** object is to make money.
 The **principle** is a very sound one.

punctual; — punctilious

You will always find me very **punctual**.
 He is **punctilious** (strictly observant of nice points) in his treatment
 of the matter.

salutary; — salubrious

This taught him a **salutary** lesson.
 The air is very **salubrious** there.

stationary; — stationery

The motor remained stationary.
We want some stationery at our office.

summons; — summon

I sent him a summons. I summoned him.

track; — tract

We travelled out of the beaten track.
They bought a large tract of land.
He presented me with his tract (small book).

CONSONANTS DOUBLED AT THE END OF WORDS.

- | | |
|------------------|--------------------|
| 1.—sin, sinner; | sit, sitting; |
| begin, beginner; | refer, referred; |
| occur, occurred; | confer, conferred. |

Words which end in a single consonant* preceded by a single vowel,* and are accented on the last syllable,* double their final consonant when a syllable (er, ing, ed) is added.

If two vowels precede the last consonant, then the last consonant is not doubled. For example :

conceal, concealed.

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| 2.—offer, offered; | credit, credited; |
| debit, debited; | benefit, benefited. |

When the vowel preceding the last consonant is not accented, the last consonant is not doubled.

EXCEPTIONS :

- (a) worship, worshipping, worshipped ;
- (b) in words ending in l and s, the l and s are generally doubled :
travel, travelling ; focus, focussed.

*See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

PLURAL OF FOREIGN WORDS.

1.—LATIN WORDS.

Nouns in a form their plural in **æ** :

formula, formulae (formulas is also used) ;

Nouns in us (masculine) form their plural in **i** :

focus, foci, radius, radii, genius, genii (familiar spirits),
and geniuses (men of genius) ;

Nouns in us (neuter) form their plural in **era** :

genus, genera.

Nouns in um form their plural in **a** :

datum, data ; addendum, addenda ; stratum, strata ;
effluvium, effluvia ;

Nouns in ix, or ex, form their plural in **ices** :

appendix, appendices ; index, indices (mathematics), and
indexes (to books) ;

Nouns in ies form their plural in **ies** : series, series.

2.—GREEK WORDS.

Nouns in is form their plural in **es** :

analysis, analyses ; basis, bases ;

Nouns in on form their plural in **a** :

phenomenon, phenomena ;

Nouns in ma form their plural in **mata** :

miasma, miasmata.

3.—FRENCH WORDS.

beau, beaux ; monsieur, messieurs ; madame, mesdames.

4.—ITALIAN WORDS.

virtuoso, virtuosi ; libretto, libretti ; dilettante, dilettanti.

5.—HEBREW WORDS.

cherub, cherubim (or cherubs) ; seraph, seraphim.

PLURAL OF COMPOUND NOUNS.

The letter **s** is added to the chief word :

fathers-in-law ; step-sons ; passers-by ; courts-martial.

“ A ” AND “ AN.”

A is used :

- (a) before all consonants* : a man, a tree, a book ;
- (b) before the aspirate **h** : a horse, a hero, a humorist, a helmet, a help, etc. ;
- (c) before the letter **u**, when sounded like **eu** : a unit, a use, a utensil, a Unitarian, a union, etc. ;
- (d) before the diphthong **eu** : a European, a eulogy, etc. ;
- (e) before the letter **e** followed by **w** : a ewe, a ewer ;
- (f) before the letter **o** in “ one,” “ once ” : such a one, a once mighty Empire ;
- (g) before any word beginning with **y** : a yellow bag, a year, a youngster, etc.

AN is used :

- (a) before a vowel sound* : an animal, an example, an ignorant man, an umbrella, etc. ;
- (b) before **h** mute : an hour, an honest man ;
- (c) before **h** in an unaccented syllable : an historical work.

N.B.—Not all of these rules are observed in the practice of older English writers.

* See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

FRENCH WORDS USED IN ENGLISH.

French words used in English may be roughly divided into three categories : the necessary ones, the handy ones, and the useless ones. As the useless ones, viz., those which have a perfect equivalent in English, are considerably more numerous than all the others put together, a selection must be made for the guidance of those who, not knowing the language, wish to understand at least some of the French they may hear or read.

In the following list the imitated pronunciation of each word is given. It should not be followed in the case of words marked with a dagger † ("amateur," "automobile," "blanc-manger," "Marseillaise," etc.) ; in all such cases the English way of pronouncing, sanctioned by long use, should be adhered to.

As regards the other words, however, although the imitated pronunciation cannot give more than an approximate idea of the actual sounds, no good reason exists why it should be ignored, so long, at any rate, as there is no universally accepted English pronunciation of the words in question. Would it not really be going too far to pronounce, for instance, "pied" in "pied-à-terre" or "au pied de la lettre" as "pied" in "pied horse" ? If we did, what fault could we find with the pronunciation of a Frenchman when he orders a bottle of "stoot" (stout) or says that he is going to a "mehtang" (meeting) ?

KEY TO IMITATED PRONUNCIATION.

- sh (in thick type) must be pronounced like s in "measure" ;
 - ß, ee, like i in "him," but with rounded lips ;
 - r (in italics) not pronounced at all ;
 - r or er (in thick type) more strongly than in English ;
 - eh represents the same sound as ay, but less acute ;
 - ng (italics) not pronounced at all ; it merely indicates that the preceding vowel has a nasal sound ;
 - ah is like a in "far," but very short ; never like a in "that."
- Nearly all vowels are short in French, unless there is a circumflex accent (^) over them.

NASAL SOUNDS.

am and an are pronounced something like au in "aunt";
 em „ en have the same sound as am, an;
 im „ in are pronounced something like ang in "fang";
 om „ on are pronounced something like ong in "song";
 um „ un are pronounced something like ung in "lung".

The imitation of these sounds is ahng, ang, ong, ung, neither the n nor the g being sounded at all.

abattoir slaughter-house
 ah-bah-to'ahr

agent provocateur
 hired disturber of the peace
 ah-shahng pro-vo-kah-ter

aide-de-camp
 aide-de-camp
 an officer acting as secretary
 to a King or General
 ayd-der-kahng

à la carte from the 'carte'
 ah lah kahrt (bill of fare)

à la mode fashionable,
 in vogue
 ah lah mod

à la mode de . . .
 after the style of . . .
 ah lah mod der . . .

âme damnée mere tool
 ahm dah-neh

amateur† amateur,
 fancier, supporter, etc.
 ah-mah-ter
 anglicized: am-mert-your

amour-propre self-esteem
 ah-moohr-proprr

à outrance¹ "to the knife"
 ah oo-trahngss

apache hooligan
 ah-pash

apéritif appetiser
 ah-peh-re-tiff

aplomb self-possession
 ah-plong ("cheek")

aspic cold meat or
 fish in jelly
 ahss-peek

atelier studio
 (of an artist) ah-ter-le-eh

attaché attaché,
 one attached to an embassy
 or legation
 ah-tah-sheh

au courant informed
 oh-koo-rahng

au naturel
 (cook.) plainly cooked
 oh nah-tEE-rell

1. "à l'outrance" is a ridiculous solecism without even the shadow of an excuse. The "l" must be omitted.

au pied de la }
 lettre } literally
 à la lettre }
 oh pee-eh der lah letr
 ah lah letr

au revoir
 good-bye for the present
 oh rer-vo'ahr

automobile† motor-car
 oh-to-mo-beel

baccarat baccarat
 bah-kah-rah

ballet ballet
 bah-lay

ballon d'essai feeler
 bah-long dess-ay

bas bleu blue stocking
 bah bler

batiste cambric
 bah-teest

béchamel cream sauce
 beh-shah-mell

bête noire¹ (fig.) aversion
 bayt no'ahr

billet-doux† love-letter
 be-yay doo

bisque crayfish, etc.,
 soup or sauce
 beesk

blague "humbug"
 blahg

blanc-manger†
 blancmange
 blahng-mahng-sheh

blanquette veal, poultry,
 etc., stewed with
 white sauce
 blahng-kayt

bonhomie good nature,
 simplicity
 bo-no-me

bonbons sweetmeats
 bong-bong

bonne bouche tit-bits
 bonn boosh

boudoir boudoir
 boo-do'ahr

bouillabaisse Provençal
 fish-stew (with white wine,
 garlic, spices, etc.)
 boo-yah-bess

boulevard boulevard,
 promenade
 bool-vahr

bouquet nosegay, aroma,
 (firework display) final
 shower of rockets
 boo-keh

bourgeois commoner
 boohr-sho'ah

briquette briquette
 bree-kayt

buffet refreshment room
 be-feh (railway)

bulletin bulletin
 beel-tang

cabaret tavern, cabaret
 kah-bah-ray

1. so often wrongly spelt "bête noir."

cadres (mil.) staff, list of
officers

kahdr

café au lait
coffee with milk
kah-feh oh lay

camembert
Camembert cheese
kah-mahng-bair

camouflage
(war term) disguising
kah-moo-flahsh

canard (fig.) false news,
hoax
kah-nahr

carte blanche leave to do
as one likes
kahr-ter blahngsh

casserole (en)
stewed in a pan
ahng kahss-rol

cassoulet fillets of goose
stewed with beans
and sausage
kahss-oo-lay

chamois† chamois
shah-mo'ah
anglicized : sham-me

champagne† champagne
shahng-pahn'yer
anglicized : sham-payn

chaperon† chaperon
shahp-rong

char à bancs pleasure car
shahr ah bahng

chargé d'affaires
chargé d'affaires, agent
shahr-shéh dah-fair

charlotte russe whipped
cream in small Savoy
biscuits
shahr-lot REES

chartreuse
Chartreuse liqueur
shar-trérz

châssis chassis
shah-see

châteaubriant large fillet
of steak with fried po-
tatoes, mushrooms, or
truffles
shah-toh-bre-ahng

chauffeur
chauffeur, driver
shoh-fer

chevalier d'industrie
sharper
sher-vah-le-eh dang-dREES-tree

chose jugée case decided
by a final judgment
shohz shE-shéh

clairvoyance†
clairvoyance
klair-vo'ah-yahngss

cliché (fig. hackneyed
expression)
klee-shéh

coiffeur hairdresser
ko'ah-fer

cognac brandy
ko-n'yahck

comme il faut
gentlemanly, ladylike
komm ill foh

communiqué communiqué,
official communication
ko-me-ne-keh

concierge hall-porter
kong-se-airsh

connaisseur† connoisseur
ko-ness-er

consommé beef-tea
kong-so-meh

cordon bleu first rate cook
kor-dong blér

corsage bodice
kor-sahsh

costumier† costumier
koss-tE-me-eh

coup coup
koo

coup de théâtre
unlooked-for incident
koo der teh-ahtr

coupon† coupon
koo-pong

coûte que coûte
cost what it may
koot ker koot

crêpe de Chine
crepe de Chine
krap der sheen

cuisine cooking
kwee-zeen

débris remains, ruin,
wreck
deh-bree

déjeuner breakfast, lunch
deh-sheer-neh

démenti flat denial
deh-mahng-tee

dénouement end, issue,
termination
deh-noo-mahng

distingué genteel, elegant
diss-tang-gheh

double entente¹
double meaning
doobl ahng-tahngt

élite select few, elite
eh-leet

en passant by the way
ahng pahss-ahng

entourage company,
set, familiars
ahng-too-rahsh

entremets sweet dishes
ahng-trer-may

entre nous
between ourselves
ahng-trer noo

1. "double entendre" is nearly as bad as "à l'outrance."

escalope flat piece of meat
made tender by beating
ess-kah-lop

esprit de corps
fellow-feeling
ess-pre der kor

exposé statement,
account
eks-po-zeh

fait accompli
a thing already done
fay t'ah-kong-plee

fête festival, fête
fayt

feuilleton serial story (in
a newspaper)
fer-yer-tong

fiancé (fem. fiancée)
betrothed
fe-ahng-sch

force majeure
superior force
fors mah-sheer

garage garage
gah-raah

gourmet epicure
goohr-may

grand seigneur
great lord ; personage
of very high rank
grahng sayn-yer

gratin brown ; burnt part
grah-tang

gruyère Gruyère cheese
grue-yair

habitué frequenter
ah-be-te-eh

* **hors concours** out of com-
petition, above class
hor kong-koohr

* **hors de combat** disabled
hor der kong-bah

* **hors-d'œuvre** side dish,
such as sardines, gher-
kins, olives, anchovies,
etc.

hor dervr

jardinière
(cook.) vegetable soup
shar-de-ne-air

impasse blind alley ;
(fig.) entanglement, fix
ang-pahss

lèse-majesté high treason
layz mah-shess-teh

macédoine mixed dish
mah-sch-do'ahn

madame¹ Madam, Mrs.
mah-dahm

mademoiselle¹ Miss
mahd-mo'ah-zell

marrons glacés
crystallised chestnuts
mah-rong glah-seh

1. "Madame" is abbreviated thus : "Mme," never "Mdme."
"Mademoiselle" is abbreviated : "Mlle," never "Mdlle."
"Monsieur" abbreviated is "M." not "Mons."

* In English, it is customary to sound the "h"; in French, the "h" is usually silent.

marseillaise† Marseillaise
mahr-seh-yayz (song)

matériel stock, stores,
plant
mah-teh-re-ell

matinée matinée, morning,
afternoon performance
mah-tee-neh

mayonnaise
mayonnaise sauce
mah-yo-nayz

menu bill of fare
mer-ne

moral¹ spirits ; courage,
discipline (of army)
mo-rahl

née born (lady's name
before marriage)
neh

négligé undress
neh-gee-sheh

nom de guerre²
assumed name, alias
nong der ghair

par excellence
preeminently
pahr ehks-sell-ahngss

pari mutuel betting on
French race courses
pah-re me-tè-ell

parvenu self-made man,
upstart
pahr-ver-ne

pastille† pastille, drop,
lozenge
pahss-tee-yer

pâté de foie gras
goose-liver paste
pah-teh der fo'ah grah

personnel staff
pair-so-nell

pied-à-terre
temporary lodging-place,
hunting box
pe-eh t'ah tair

poste restante
poste restante
(letters marked "poste restante"
remain at post-office till called
for)
post ress-tahnst

potage soup
po-tahsh

pourparlers parley,
negotiations
poohr-pahr-leh

1. Very often spelt "morale" ; but it must be clearly understood that thus spelt it means in French "morals, ethics, morality," and has nothing to do with the above mentioned meanings.
2. Many persons believe that "nom de plume" is a French expression. Each word separately is French, no doubt ; but the whole expression is just as much French as "wattman" (the driver of an electric car, in France) is English. "Pseudonyme" is the proper word for a WRITER's assumed name.

primeurs early vegetables,
early fruit, early flowers
pre-mer

purée mash, thick soup
pe-reh

queue† file, line (of persons)
ker
anglicized : kew

relevé fresh course at
dinner
rerl-veh

rendez-vous appointment,
place of appointment
rahng-deh-voo

répertoire stock of plays or
pieces for performance
reh-pair-to'ahr

restaurant restaurant
ress-toh-rahng

résumé summary,
epitome
reh-ZE-meh

rissole rissole
riss-ol

roquefort Roquefort cheese
rock-for

salmis salmis (a stew made
up with roast game)
sahl-me

sauce piquante a sauce
with a sharp pungent
flavour
sohas pee-kahngt

sauté lightly fried
soh-teh

savate French (foot) boxing
sah-vaht

succès d'estime
indifferent success
SEEK-say dess-teem

table d'hôte meal of several
courses at fixed price
tahbl doht

tête à tête confidential,
in private, private
interview
tay t'ah tayt

timbre quality of the
tone (of a voice, etc.)
tangbr

trottoir foot pavement
tro-to'ahr

vaudeville† light comedy
vohd-vill

velours velours (velvet)
ver-loohr

vin ordinaire
ordinary table-wine
vang- or-dee-nair

vol-au-vent vol-au-vent,
(puff pastry containing meat,
mushrooms, etc.)
vol oh vahng

wagon-lit sleeping-car
vah-ghong-lee

SOME WORDS OCCASIONALLY MISPRONOUNCED.

KEY TO THE IMITATED PRONUNCIATION.

ǎ as in	fat
ā „	fate
a „	fall
ě „	met, set
ē „	me, she
ér „	ermine, term
ī „	pin
i „	pine

ǒ as in	top
ǒǒ „	book
ō „	note
ōō „	move
ũ „	bun, fun
ū „	pure, mute

Vowels with indistinct sounds are put in italics, thus : *a, e*, etc.

The mark ' indicates that the preceding syllable is stressed.

aborigines	ǎb-o-rīj'-în-ěz
accessory	ak'-sěss-o-rĭ
alias	ā'-lĭ-ǎs
ally	āl-lĭ'
allies	āl-lĭz'
antipodes	antĭp'-ǒ-děz
archives	ar'-kĭvz
assign	ass-în'
assignee	ass-în-ě'
ate	ět
August	α'-gust
august (adjective)	α-gust'
baccarat	bǎ'-ka-rǎ
bade	bǎd
Buddhist	bǒǒd'-ĭst
catastrophe	kǎ-tǎs'-trǒ-fĭ
chaise	shāz
chasm	kǎzm
chastisement	chǎs'-tĭz-ment

cicerone	chĭ-che-rō'-nĭ or sĭs-e-rō-nĭ
compact (firm)	kom-pakt'
compact (agreement)	kom'-pakt
connoisseur	kǒn-ass-ér'
corps	kor
courier	kǒǒ'-rĭer
crescendo	krěsh-ěn'-dō
decorum	dě-kor'-um
decorous	dě-kor'-ous
deficit	dě'-fĭ-sĭt or dě'-fĭ-sĭt
depot	dě'-pō
digest (noun)	dĭ'-jest
digest (verb)	dĭ-jest'
diphtheria	dĭf-thě'-rĭ-a
diphthong	dĭf'-thong
docile	dō'-sĭl or dǒ'-sĭl
either	ī'-thér
envelope	ěn'-ve-lōp

finance	fī-nans' or fī-nans'	neither	nī'-thér
forbade	for-bād'	orison	ō'-rī-zon
forehead	fō'-rēd	pageant	pā'-jant
fragile	frāj'-il	patent	pā-tent, except in "Patent Office" or "Letters Patent."
franchise	fran'-chīz	patriot	pā'-trī-ot or pā'-trī-ot
gala	gā'-la	poignant	poi'-nant
gallant (brave)	gāl'ant	privacy	prīv'-a-sī
gallant (attentive to ladies)	ga-lant' (attentive to ladies)	process	prō'-cess
gyves	jīvz	progress	prō'-gress
harem	hār'-em or ha-rēm'	prophecy	prōf'-esī
hecatomb	hēk'-ā-tōm	prophecy	prōf'-esī
heifer	hēf'-ēr	pyjamas	pī-jah'-maz
heinous	hā'-nous	rout	rowt
idyl	ī'-dīl or ī'-dīl	route	rōōt
infamous	īn'-fā-mous (not : īn-fā'-mous)	saline (noun)	sa-līn'
impious	īm'-pī-ous (not : īmplī'-ous)	saline (adj.)	sā'-līn
intestinal	īn-tēs'-tī-nal	scherzo	skēr'-tsō
invalid	īn-vā'-līd (without value)	señor	sēn-yor'
invalid	īn'-va-līd or īn'-va-lēd	signora	sīn-yor'-a
Italian	ī-tāl'-yan	ski	shē
laboratory	lāb'-o-ra-to-rī or lā-bō'-ra-to-rī	ukase	ū-kāz
laudanum	lōd'-num	Valkyrie	vāl'-kī-rī
lira	lē'-rā	vermeil	vér'-mīl
lire (Plural)	lē'-rā	vermouth	vér'-mōōt
margarine	mar'-ga-rēn (pronounced by most people : mar-je-rēn')	vice versa	vī'-sī vér-sa
malign	mā-līn'	virile	vī'-rīl
naphtha	nāf'-tha	visa	vē'-za
		visé (past participle)	vē-zā

This Verb Table is FOR REFERENCE ONLY ; there is no necessity to learn it. It is given purely with a view to illustrating as fully as possible the various technical terms which are used in grammar in connection with verbs, and of which the meanings are often very imperfectly understood.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "TO SEE."

ACTIVE VOICE.

The person or thing named by the subject (in this case : I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they) DOES the action denoted by the verb.

INFINITIVE (1).

PRESENT : to see
PERFECT (2) : to have seen

PARTICIPLES (3).

PRESENT : seeing
PERFECT : having seen
PAST : seen

(1) The infinitive being merely the NAME of the verb, has in itself no reference to person or number. It is generally preceded by "to" (to see, to begin, to speak). But "to" is not used when the infinitive comes after such verbs as : can, do, dare, must, need, shall, will, and in a few other cases (I dare not SPEAK, you must BEGIN).

NOTE CAREFULLY that when two verbs occur together, if the first is not "HAVE" or "BE," THE SECOND VERB, WHETHER USED WITH "TO" OR NOT, IS IN THE INFINITIVE. Thus :

I want (first verb) TO SEE (second verb, in the infinitive) your friend, but I cannot (first verb) SEE (second verb, in the infinitive) him before to-morrow.

(2) In grammar, "perfect" means "completed," "entirely finished."

(3) The present participle* is formed by adding ING to the infinitive and omitting the "to." The gerund* has the same form.

*See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

INDICATIVE (ACTIVE VOICE).

PRESENT Tense.		Past Tense.	FUTURE Tense.		FUTURE in the PAST or CONDITIONAL Tense.	
1st person singular	I see	I saw	I shall see	I should see	I should see	
2nd "	thou seest	thou sawest	thou wilt see	thou wouldst see	thou wouldst see	
3rd "	he (she, it) sees	he (she, it) saw	he (she, it) will see	he (she, it) would see	he (she, it) would see	
1st person plural	we see	we saw	we shall see	we should see	we should see	
2nd "	you see	you saw	you will see	you would see	you would see	
3rd "	they see	they saw	they will see	they would see	they would see	

FUTURE PERFECT in the PAST
or CONDITIONAL PERFECT.

PRESENT PERFECT Tense.		PAST PERFECT Tense.	FUTURE PERFECT Tense.		FUTURE PERFECT in the PAST or CONDITIONAL PERFECT.	
1st pers. sing.	I have seen	I had seen	I shall have seen	I should have seen	I should have seen	
2nd "	thou hast seen	thou hadst seen	thou wilt have seen	thou wouldst have seen	thou wouldst have seen	
3rd "	he (she, it) has seen	he (she, it) had seen	he (she, it) will have seen	he (she, it) would have seen	he (she, it) would have seen	
1st pers. plural	we have seen	we had seen	we shall have seen	we should have seen	we should have seen	
2nd "	you have seen	you had seen	you will have seen	you would have seen	you would have seen	
3rd "	they have seen	they had seen	they will have seen	they would have seen	they would have seen	

IMPERATIVE (4).

2nd person singular	see (thou)
2nd person plural	see (you)

(4) The imperative has only one person, the second, singular and plural. A substitute for the first and third persons is found in the following forms : Let me, us, see ; let him, her, them, see, in which "let" is the real imperative : (You) let me, us, them, etc., see.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "TO SEE" (continued)

SUBJUNCTIVE (5).

PRESENT Tense.

1st person singular	I see
2nd " "	thou see
3rd " "	he (she, it) see
1st person plural	we see
2nd " "	you see
3rd " "	they see

PRESENT PERFECT Tense.

1st person singular	I have seen
2nd " "	thou have seen
3rd " "	he (she, it) have seen
1st person plural	we have seen
2nd " "	you have seen
3rd " "	they have seen

PAST Tense.

I saw
thou sawest
he (she, it) saw
we saw
you saw
they saw

PAST PERFECT Tense.

I had seen
thou hadst seen
he (she, it) had seen
we had seen
you had seen
they had seen

PASSIVE VOICE.

The person or thing named by the subject (in this case : I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they) SUFFERS the action denoted by the verb.

The passive voice is formed by the verb "to be," followed by the past participle of the verb conjugated.

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT : to be seen
PERFECT : to have been seen

PARTICIPLE.

PRESENT : being seen
PERFECT : having been seen
PAST : seen

(5) For the meaning and use of the subjunctive, see Part III.

INDICATIVE (PASSIVE VOICE).

PRESENT Tense.

I am seen
thou art seen
he (she, it) is seen
we are seen
you are seen
they are seen

PRESENT PERFECT Tense.

I have been seen
thou hast been seen
he (she, it) has been seen
we have been seen
you have been seen
they have been seen

PAST Tense.

I was seen
thou wast seen
he (she, it) was seen
we were seen
you were seen
they were seen

PAST PERFECT Tense.

I had been seen
thou hadst been seen
he (she, it) had been seen
we had been seen
you had been seen
they had been seen

FUTURE Tense.

I shall be seen
thou wilt be seen
he (she, it) will be seen
we shall be seen
you will be seen
they will be seen

FUTURE PERFECT Tense.

I shall have been seen
thou wilt have been seen
he (she, it) will have been seen
we shall have been seen
you will have been seen
they will have been seen

FUTURE in the PAST or
CONDITIONAL Tense.

I should be seen
thou wouldst be seen
he (she, it) would be seen
we should be seen
you would be seen
they would be seen

FUTURE PERFECT in the PAST or
CONDITIONAL PERFECT Tense.

I should have been seen
thou wouldst have been seen
he (she, it) would " " "
we should have been seen
you would have been seen
they would have been seen

IMPERATIVE.

2nd person singular be seen (thou)
2nd person plural be seen (you)

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT Tense.

I be, thou be, he (she, it) be } seen
we be, you be, they be

PRESENT PERFECT Tense.

I have been, thou have been, he (she, it) have been } seen
we have been, you have been, they have been

PAST Tense.

I were, thou wert, he (she, it) were } seen
we were, you were, they were

PAST PERFECT Tense.

I had been, thou hadst been, he (she, it) had been } seen
we had been, you had been, they had been

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "TO SEE" (continued)

CONTINUOUS OR PROGRESSIVE FORM.

The "continuous" or "progressive" form is that form of the verb which marks that the action is going on at the time indicated by the tense.

The continuous or progressive form is merely the verb "to be," followed by the present participle of the verb conjugated.

INFINITIVE.

ACTIVE VOICE { PRESENT : to be seeing
PERFECT : to have been seeing

No passive voice

PARTICIPLE.

None.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT Tense.

ACTIVE VOICE : I am seeing, etc.

PASSIVE VOICE : I am being seen, etc.

PAST (or IMPERFECT) Tense.

I was seeing, etc.

I was being seen, etc.

PRESENT PERFECT Tense.

ACTIVE VOICE : I have been seeing, etc.

PAST PERFECT Tense.

I had been seeing, etc.

FUTURE PERFECT Tense.

I shall have been seeing, etc.

FUTURE PERFECT in the PAST or CONDITIONAL PERFECT.

I should have been seeing, etc.

No passive voice.

NO IMPERATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT Tense.

ACTIVE VOICE : I be, thou be, he (she, it) be seeing, etc.

PAST Tense.

I were, thou wert, he (she, it) were seeing, etc.

PRESENT PERFECT Tense.

ACTIVE VOICE : I have, thou have, he have been seeing, etc.

PAST PERFECT Tense.

I had been seeing, etc.

No passive voice.

EMPHATIC FORM OF CONJUGATION (See Part III.)

ABRIDGED RULES FOR PUNCTUATION.

If a paragraph or sentence were written without any stops, or if the stops were put in the wrong place, reading would be a slow and difficult process. To put such stops at places where a pause should naturally be made in reading or speaking is to PUNCTUATE.

Punctuation, in spite of its obvious necessity, is of comparatively recent date. It was almost unknown in antiquity, and did not begin to be in general use before the XVIth century.* No settled rules, however, existed until the middle of the XVIIIth century. Even now there is no unanimity about ALL the rules concerning it, although there is a general agreement respecting the main principles upon which it is based and their general application.

The most important marks of punctuation are :

- 1.—The COMMA (,)
- 2.—The SEMI-COLON (;)
- 3.—The COLON (:)
- 4.—The FULL-STOP (.)

* There still exist manuscripts of the XIIIth century entirely without punctuation.

THE COMMA.

The comma marks the shortest of pauses and is used :

- (a) In the place of "and," to separate a series of words belonging to the same part of speech, whether nouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs :

I saw Robert, Henry, William and James.

The horse walks, trots, canters and gallops.

He always does his work quietly, carefully and correctly.

This humble, peaceful, honest man has been ill-treated.

- (b) To mark off :

1. Words in the vocative* :

I am, Dear Sir, yours faithfully.

2. Words or phrases in apposition,* participial phrases,* absolute nominatives* :

George the Fifth, King of England, was born in 1865.

Having replied to his letter, I left at once for the country.

All things considered, I prefer to stay at home.

- (c) In complex sentences,* where a short pause is required to separate clauses* :

Unless you come to-morrow, I shall not feel happy.

She saw the gardener, who told her that his master was away.

(A restrictive adjective clause* is not, however, separated by a comma from the main clause on which it depends : The man whom you saw yesterday is here).

- (d) In double sentences, to separate the two parts (when the second subject is expressed) :

He wanted to start at once, but his friend detained him.

(BUT : He wanted to start at once but was not ready).

- (e) Before and after words or phrases such as : at length, however, at last, therefore, indeed, too, for instance, no doubt, in fact, of course, etc. :

I think, therefore, that the proposal must be accepted.

This, too, was found insufficient.

* See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

THE SEMI-COLON.

The semi-colon marks a longer pause than that indicated by a comma. It is used :

- (a) In double sentences, when the conjunction is not expressed :

To her, it was of supreme importance ; to him, it did not matter in the least.

All his previous attempts had failed ; what was the use of trying again, in circumstances even more difficult ?

- (b) In double sentences, when the conjunction is expressed, but when a longer pause is required than would be indicated by a comma :

Yes, I did meet him ; but he was so altered that I could hardly recognize him.

- (c) To separate a number of parallel clauses :

The trees were uprooted by the gale ; nearly every house was demolished ; even the church was seriously damaged.

THE COLON.

The pause marked by the colon is longer than that indicated by the semi-colon. The colon is used :

- (a) Sometimes before a quotation :

The general stood up and said : " Victory or death ! "

- (b) Before an enumeration :

They sold everything : furniture, pictures, and even their library.

- (c) To separate two coordinate clauses,* the second of which is an explanation of the first :

Never do anything dishonest : honesty is always the best policy.

* See Part III. for explanation of grammatical terms.

THE FULL STOP.

The full stop is used :

(a) At the end of all complete sentences ;

(b) After initials or abbreviations :

S. Walker, Esq., per pro., etc.

OTHER PUNCTUATION MARKS.

1. The NOTE OF INTERROGATION (?) after direct questions :

Did he come so soon ?

2. The NOTE OF EXCLAMATION (!) after interjections or exclamatory sentences :

Alas ! he left us.

Beware of the dog !

3. The APOSTROPHE (') showing that a letter (or letters) has been left out :

don't, won't, etc. (see APOSTROPHE, Part III.).

4. The INVERTED COMMAS (" "), used to indicate directly reported speech :

" Come, let us go," said he.

5. The PARENTHESIS (), used to enclose within the sentence a phrase or clause having a distinct and separate meaning :

If we believe (as we ought to do) that there is no policy like politeness, etc.

6. The DOUBLE DASH (— —), used to mark a sudden break in the sentence :

The two partners—for both had come—raised strong objections to the proposal.

NOTE.—The double dash is often used instead of a parenthesis.

PART III

GRAMMATICAL TERMS EXPLAINED AND ILLUSTRATED.

PARSING. ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

HINTS ON STYLE.

Those who are quite unfamiliar with grammar and desire to obtain a general knowledge of the subject are advised to study first the easy definitions,

PARTS OF SPEECH, SENTENCE, SUBJECT,
PREDICATE, OBJECT, CLAUSE, PHRASE,

given in the first ten pages of this part. It is absolutely essential that these should be thoroughly understood, for they supply a key to all the rest.

The above definitions are also referred to in the alphabetical section which follows. This contains all that is necessary for the understanding of the main principles of grammar.

The terminology adopted here and now generally used is that recommended by a report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology ; but the old equivalents of the very few new terms have been given in every case.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

Speech is made up of sentences, and sentences of words. The words which we use to make sentences belong to different classes, each having a name which indicates its nature and the kind of work it performs in a sentence. These classes are known as the "parts of speech," and they are :

the NOUN	the VERB	the PRONOUN
the ADJECTIVE	the ADVERB	the PREPOSITION
the CONJUNCTION	the INTERJECTION	

NOUN.

A **NOUN** (sometimes called a **SUBSTANTIVE**) is the name of any person or thing we can think of :

man, house, John, river, beauty, existence, painting, etc.

In the following sentence :

Indolent as Johnson was, he acquired knowledge with such ease and rapidity that at every school to which he was sent he was soon the best scholar,

the words **Johnson, knowledge, ease, rapidity, school, scholar,** are **NOUNS**.

Nouns are classified as common, proper, concrete, abstract, collective (See under each heading).

VERB.

A **VERB** is a word by means of which something is said about a person or a thing. Ex. :

John left for America.

The sun shines.

"Left" and "shines," which make an assertion about a person,—John,—and a thing,—the sun,—are **VERBS**.

The verb is the most essential part of speech. No group of words can form a sentence without a verb expressed or understood. A verb shows :

(1) **ACTION** : they walked ; birds fly ; OR,

(2) **STATE** : I am happy ; he seems a clever man.

A verb often consists of more than one word :

They have been walking ; I shall go to-morrow.

PRONOUN.

A **PRONOUN** is a word which stands for a noun, and is used :
1.—To avoid repetition :

When my friend saw your partner yesterday, he told him that everything was settled, and they went together to the Bank,

INSTEAD OF :

When my friend saw your partner yesterday, my friend told your partner that everything was settled, and my friend and your partner went together to the Bank.

2.—To mention persons or things without naming them :
 this is mine ; everybody likes them ; you will not succeed ;
 it is freezing.

this, mine, everybody, them, you, it, are PRONOUNS.

ADJECTIVE.

An ADJECTIVE is a word joined to a noun (or pronoun) to describe or distinguish that which the noun (or pronoun) stands for :

beautiful weather ; eminent lawyers ; brown paper ;
 their garden ; this book ; my room ; two tables ;
 unhappy me !

ADVERB.

An ADVERB is a word which qualifies (viz., adds to the meaning of) a verb, an adjective, or another adverb :

he spoke gently ; he is very strong ;
 you understand me quite well.

PREPOSITION.

A PREPOSITION is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to show a relation between the noun or pronoun and some other word in the sentence. Ex. :

The wool is on,—under,—near the cushion.
 This is for me. He will come with us.
 on, under, near, for, with, are PREPOSITIONS.

CONJUNCTION.

A CONJUNCTION is a word used to join words or groups of words :

Four and five are nine.
 You will find it either on the table or in the cupboard.
 He will come, or his brother will wire.
 and, either, or, are CONJUNCTIONS.

INTERJECTION.

An INTERJECTION is a word used to express some sudden emotion, or to call attention :

Alas ! Eh ! Hurrah ! Pooh ! etc.

SENTENCE, SUBJECT, PREDICATE.

Our friends will arrive shortly.

The weather was very fine here yesterday.

If we consider each of these groups of words, we can easily notice :

First, that each tells us something about a person or a thing ;

Secondly, that each expresses a thought fully, thus making complete sense.

Each of these groups of words is a SENTENCE.

A SENTENCE may thus be defined as :

A group of words by which something is said about a person or a thing, and which makes complete sense.

In a sentence, therefore, there are necessarily two parts :

- (a) the word (or words) denoting the person or thing respecting which something is said ;—and
- (b) all that is said about that person or thing.

The first part is the SUBJECT, and the second is the PREDICATE. "Predicate" comes from the Latin "praedicare," which means : to say, to affirm, to declare.

We can thus divide the above sentences as follows :

Person or thing
spoken about :

SUBJECT

Our friends

The weather

All that is said of the person
or thing spoken about :

PREDICATE

will arrive shortly.

was very fine here yesterday.

All sentences can be divided in this way into their two component parts, or, in other words, logically analyzed.

The foregoing sentences are assertions, or statements, something being affirmed by them of a person or a thing.

Speech does not, however, consist merely of assertions or statements ; there are also other kinds of sentences which may express :

- (a) a question : Will our friends arrive shortly ?
- (b) a wish : May they arrive shortly !
- (c) a command, request, or advice : Come here at once.—Kindly hand me the paper.—Be prudent.
- (d) an exclamation : How fine the weather is this morning !

It will be noted :

- 1.—That in some sentences the subject is understood. In :
 “ Come here,” the subject (not expressed) is “ you ” :
 “ You come here.”
- 2.—That in some sentences something is said TO, instead of ABOUT, someone. This, however, does not affect the two component parts, and, therefore, the analysis of the sentence. It is easy to see that, for instance, “ You may succeed,” and “ May you succeed,” which make both complete sense, are formed of the same parts, viz. : “ you,” and “ may succeed.” Consequently, all sentences in analysis are dealt with as assertions, and (a) (b) (c) (d) are logically divided as follows :

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
Our friends	will arrive shortly.
They	may arrive shortly.
(You)	come here at once ;—kindly hand me the paper ;—be prudent.
The weather	is how fine this morning.

If there must be two parts in the sentence, there must also be at least two words (although one may sometimes be understood), otherwise nothing would be said, or what was said would refer to nothing.

If there are only two words in the sentence, the predicate must of necessity be a verb, since the verb is the word by means of which something is said about a person or a thing. If, therefore, a sentence consists only of one subject and one verb, the verb, being ALL THAT IS SAID ABOUT THE SUBJECT, is the whole predicate :

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
The sun	shines.
Dogs	bark.
Time	flies.

It has been pointed out that sometimes the subject is understood, especially in commands. The predicate (or part of the predicate) may also be understood in exclamations, as in : What ! you here ! which can only mean : What ! you are here !, " are " being the verb (part of the predicate) understood.

The foregoing are examples of sentences which are called SIMPLE, because they consist only of one subject and one predicate. Not all sentences, however, are simple ; some are COMPLEX, others are DOUBLE or MULTIPLE (see pages 69-72). But whether simple, complex, double or multiple, all sentences, without exception, have the two component parts called SUBJECT and PREDICATE, and can always be divided as explained above.

OBJECT (Direct and Indirect).

The meaning of the word OBJECT will be best understood by considering the analysis of a simple sentence :

He wrote a letter.

This sentence tells us something (wrote a letter) about someone (he). HE, about whom something is said, and who is the agent or doer of the action, is the subject of the sentence and therefore of the verb " wrote."

WHAT did he write? A letter. A LETTER is the DIRECT OBJECT of the action denoted by the verb "wrote." The direct object answers the question "what?" (or "whom?" if the object is a person, as in : He saw ME).

A direct object is therefore the name of the person or thing upon which the action denoted by the verb is directly exerted.

Let us now consider the sentence : He wrote ME a letter. The word "me," meaning "to me," names the person indirectly affected by the action of writing. ME is called the INDIRECT OBJECT.

NOTE.—An object should not be confused with a "predicative" noun or pronoun. Thus, in the following sentence : He was appointed secretary to the club, SECRETARY names the SAME PERSON as the subject, and is a predicative noun, not an object. (See full explanation of "predicative noun" in alphabetical section).

But in the sentence : They elected a secretary, SECRETARY names a person different from that named by the subject (they), and is the direct object of the verb "elected."

CLAUSE.

A clause is a group of words which contains a subject and predicate and forms part of a complex, double or multiple sentence.

1.—COMPLEX SENTENCES.

The chairman pointed out that the reserves were ample.

The man who was here this morning will call again to-morrow.

Our friend will come when he is disengaged.

According to what has been said previously, the above sentences should be analyzed as follows :

SUBJECT.

The chairman

The man who was here this morning

Our friend

PREDICATE.

pointed out that the reserves were ample.

will call again to-morrow.

will come when he is disengaged.

It must be observed, however, that each sentence contains, within its subject or predicate, another group of words (indicated in heavy type) which can also be divided into subject and predicate, viz. :

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
(that) the reserves	were ample
who	was here this morning
(when) he	is disengaged

Each of these secondary groups of words, although having a subject and predicate, depends for its meaning on the other part of the sentence, i.e. the main statement. It does not form a complete sentence, but only part of one, and it cannot stand alone : it is called a dependent or SUBORDINATE clause. The other part, which is not subordinate, is the MAIN CLAUSE, and the whole group of words is a COMPLEX SENTENCE.

A complex sentence may contain more than one subordinate clause :

The mechanic who came last night said that he would call again to-morrow if the car did not run well.

The groups of words in heavy type are SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

NOTE CAREFULLY :

- 1.—That the subordinate clause in a complex sentence is equivalent to one of the following single parts of speech :
NOUN, ADJECTIVE, or ADVERB.

*that the reserves were ample	serves the purpose of a noun, object of "pointed out." It answers the question "what?" (See NOUN-CLAUSE)
*who was here this morning	qualifies a noun, "man," and plays the part of an adjective. (See ADJECTIVE-CLAUSE).
*when he is disengaged	qualifying a verb, "will come," does the work of an adverb. (See ADVERB-CLAUSE).

* See examples on previous page.

2.—That in a complex sentence the subordinate clause or clauses are introduced (preceded) by :

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS. The main subordinating conjunctions are :

that, when, while, after, since, before, where, because, unless, than, if, although.

a relative pronoun : WHO (when not meaning AND HE, AND SHE, AND THEY), WHICH, THAT, WHAT ;

or a relative adverb : WHERE (when not meaning AND THERE), WHEN (if not meaning AND THEN), WHY.

2.—DOUBLE and MULTIPLE SENTENCES

(COMPOUND SENTENCES)

We wanted to leave, but our friends detained us, and we stayed another week in London.

In this sentence, all the parts are MAIN CLAUSES, INDEPENDENT, OF EQUAL RANK.

We wanted to leave ;

Our friends detained us ;

We stayed another week in London.

None is dependent upon either of the others in the sentence ; none is used in the place of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb ; none is introduced by one of the conjunctions, relative pronouns or adverbs previously mentioned.

These parts are CO-ORDINATE clauses. " Co-ordinate " means : of equal rank.

If there are two such clauses in a sentence, the sentence is DOUBLE ; if there are more than two, the sentence is MULTIPLE.

Co-ordinate clauses are introduced by CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS. The main co-ordinating conjunctions are : AND, BUT, FOR, OR, NOR.

Sometimes, however, co-ordinate clauses are not linked by any conjunction. Example :

No obstacle could ever deter him ; no check ever made him despondent ; his sense of duty always kept him ready to do his very best.

The distinction between the two kinds of clauses is of capital importance. We can easily find out, however, whether a clause is subordinate or co-ordinate by asking ourselves the following questions :

What conjunction, if any, introduces the clause in the sentence ?

Is the clause a main statement, or does it play the part of a noun, an adjective or an adverb ?

PHRASE.

A PHRASE is a group of words which does not contain a subject and a predicate, and does not, therefore, make sense by itself, but plays in a sentence the part of an adjective or an adverb.

A man of undaunted courage was needed at this juncture.
The aeroplane soared above the mountain.

“Of undaunted courage,” qualifying “man,” a noun, is a phrase equivalent to an adjective, and is called an ADJECTIVE-PHRASE.

“Above the mountain,” qualifying “soared,” a verb, is a phrase equivalent to an adverb, and is called an ADVERB-PHRASE.

SPECIAL NOTE

The foregoing pages (63 to 72) are to grammar what the first rules and multiplication tables are to arithmetic: they give the essence of the whole matter.

Their importance is such that students who have not acquired any previous knowledge of the subject should first read them carefully, and then do the simple exercises commencing below; by comparing their work with the key that immediately follows the exercises, they will be able to ascertain whether they have grasped thoroughly the essential part mentioned above. IF ORDINARY ATTENTION IS GIVEN, THE TASK WILL NOT BE FOUND AT ALL DIFFICULT.

SHORT EXERCISES (WITH KEY).

Pick out in each sentence the various parts of speech as indicated in brackets. Write them down separately in the order stated, and compare with the Key given on pages 75-76.

(I.)

It was a lovely evening in the spring-time of the year, and in the soft stillness of the twilight, all nature was very calm and beautiful.

(NOUNS,—ADJECTIVES,—PREPOSITIONS,—ADVERB)

(II.)

The day had been fine and warm; but at the coming on of night, the air grew cool, and in the mellowing distance smoke was rising gently from the cottage chimneys.

(NOUNS,—VERBS,—PREPOSITIONS,—CONJUNCTIONS,—ADVERBS)

(III.)

There were a thousand pleasant scents diffused around, from the young leaves and fresh buds ; the cuckoo had been singing all day long, and was but just now hushed : the smell of earth newly-upturned, first breath of hope to the first labourer after his garden had withered, was fragrant in the evening breeze.

(VERBS,—ADVERBS,—ADJECTIVES)

(IV.)

It was a time when most men cherish good resolves, and sorrow for the wasted past ; when most men, looking on the shadows as they gather, think of that evening which must close on all, and that to-morrow which has none beyond.

(VERBS,—PRONOUNS,—PREPOSITIONS,—CONJUNCTIONS,—ADVERBS)

Divide the following simple sentences into subject and predicate :—

(V.)

All nature was calm and beautiful.

The day had been fine and warm.

There were a thousand pleasant scents diffused around.

Separate the main clause and the subordinate clause or clauses in the sentences below, stating the nature of each subordinate clause (whether noun, adjective, or adverb-clause) :

(VI.)

The cuckoo, which had been singing all day long, was but just now hushed.

The air grew cool as the night came on.

Although he had visited so many foreign countries, the traveller did not think that the beauty and calm of such a lovely night could ever be surpassed anywhere on earth.

Write separately, and without the conjunctions, each of the co-ordinate clauses in the following double and multiple sentences :

(VII.)

It was a lovely evening in the spring-time of the year, and in the soft stillness of the twilight all nature was very calm and beautiful.

The day had been very fine and warm ; but at the coming on of night, the air grew cool, and in the mellowing distance smoke was rising gently from the cottage chimneys.

State whether the following are adjective-phrases or adverb-phrases :

(VIII.)

1. (a lovely evening) in the spring-time
2. (the soft stillness) of the twilight
3. (smoke was rising) in the mellowing distance
4. (smoke was rising) from the cottage chimneys

KEY TO THE EXERCISES.

(I.)

NOUNS : evening, spring-time, year, stillness, twilight, nature.

ADJECTIVES : lovely, soft, all, calm, beautiful.

PREPOSITIONS : in, of.

ADVERB : very.

(II.)

NOUNS : day, night, air, distance, smoke, cottage (used as adjective)
chimneys.

VERB-NOUN : (the) coming.

VERBS : had been, grew, was rising.

PREPOSITIONS : at, of, in, from.

CONJUNCTIONS : and, but.

ADVERBS : on, gently.

(III.)

VERBS : were diffused, had been singing, was hushed, had withered, was.

ADVERBS : around, but (only), just now, newly.

All day long : idiomatic expression used as an adverb
(all, adjective—day, noun—long, adverb).

ADJECTIVES : thousand, pleasant, young, fresh, all, upturned, first,
fragrant, evening (used here as an adjective).

(IV.)

VERBS : cherish, sorrow, gather, think, must, close, has.

VERB-ADJECTIVE : looking.

PRONOUNS : it, they, all, which, none.

PREPOSITIONS : for, on, of.

CONJUNCTIONS : and, as.

ADVERBS : when (relative-adverb), beyond.

(V.)

SUBJECT.

All nature

The day

A thousand pleasant scents

PREDICATE.

was calm and beautiful.

had been fine and warm.

were diffused around there.

(VI.)

MAIN CLAUSE.

The cuckoo was but just now
hushed

The air grew cool

The traveller did not think

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE.

which had been singing all day
long :

ADJECTIVE-CLAUSE qualifying the
noun "cuckoo."

as the night came on :

ADVERB-CLAUSE qualifying the
verb "grew."

that the beauty and calm of such a
lovely night could ever be sur-
passed anywhere on earth :

NOUN-CLAUSE, object of "did not
think."

although he had visited so many
foreign countries :

ADVERB-CLAUSE qualifying the
verb "did not think."

(VII.)

It was a lovely evening in the spring-time of the year.

In the soft stillness of the twilight all nature was very calm and beautiful.

The day had been fine and warm.

At the coming on of the night, the air grew cool.

In the mellowing distance smoke was rising gently from the cottage
chimneys.

(VIII.)

In the springtime,—ADJECTIVE-PHRASE qualifying "evening."

Of the twilight,—ADJECTIVE-PHRASE qualifying "stillness."

In the mellowing distance,—ADVERB-PHRASE qualifying "was rising."

From the cottage chimneys,—ADVERB-PHRASE qualifying "was rising."

Alphabetical List of GRAMMATICAL TERMS

INTENDED FOR REFERENCE ONLY.

Many of the terms used in English Grammar are, to the majority of people, confusing and difficult to understand. Fortunately most of these terms may be safely ignored, and for all ordinary purposes the student is advised to concern himself only with the matter given previous to this section, more particularly that on pages 63 to 72.

The following list is therefore merely given FOR REFERENCE purposes, and not as material for systematic study.

ABSTRACT NOUNS.

An ABSTRACT NOUN is the name of a quality, action, or state, such as "courage," "running," "health," considered apart from persons or things, although qualities, actions, or states can actually have no such separate existence. Obviously there can be no courage without someone who is courageous, no running, no health without someone or something that runs, that is healthy, etc.

(Examples of abstract nouns : kindness, thought, bravery, manhood, avarice, painting, resolution, sourness, rancour, hatred, workmanship, ineptitude, ability, etc.)

ACCENT.

A stress upon a particular syllable of a word.

By means of accent we distinguish between adjectives, nouns and verbs which are spelt alike, for instance :

cóntest (noun), and contést (verb) ; éxtract (n.), and extráct (v.) ;
éxpert (n.), and expért (adjective) ; mínute (n.), minúte (a.), etc.

ACCIDENCE.

ACCIDENCE is that part of grammar which treats of the inflexion of words, the declension of nouns, adjectives, etc., and the conjugation of verbs.

ACCUSATIVE CASE.—(OBJECTIVE CASE).

- (a) "I see Robert." "Do you see him?" "Robert" and "him" are said to be in the accusative case, because they are the direct objects of "I see" and "Do you see?"

A noun or pronoun used as direct object of a sentence or clause is in the accusative case.

- (b) "They appointed him secretary." "Him," direct object of "they appointed," is in the accusative case, so is the noun "secretary," which is a predicative noun referring to the object.

A noun used predicatively referring to the object is in the accusative case. (See VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION).

- (c) "I wrote to her."—"This is the man of whom he spoke."—"Her" and "whom" are in the accusative case, used after prepositions.

A noun or pronoun used after a preposition is in the accusative case.

- (d) "He was three hours in the snow."—"The town is ten miles from here."—"Hours" and "miles" are in the accusative case, being used as adverbs of time and distance, respectively.

A noun used as an adverb is in the accusative case.

ACTIVE VOICE.

When the subject of a sentence names the person or thing that performs the action denoted by the verb, the verb is said to be in the ACTIVE VOICE. Examples :

"I love children."

"He gave me a book."

"You do not keep your promise."

"Love," "gave," "keep," are in the active voice, because the subjects "I," "he," "you," name the doers of the actions denoted by "love," "gave," and "do keep."

ADJECTIVES.

An ADJECTIVE (see page 65) is used :

- (1) to qualify or limit the person or thing named by the noun :
some BROWN paper ; a CLEVER boy ;
- (2) to point out and distinguish : THIS house, THAT dress ;
- (3) to express number : THREE ladies ;

- (4) to express order : the FIFTH day ;
- (5) to express quantity : MANY books ;
- (6) to express possession : MY books, HIS house.

The words MY, THY, HIS, HER, ITS, OUR, YOUR, THEIR, sometimes called pronominal adjectives or possessive pronouns, are in fact possessive adjectives.

The articles, definite and indefinite, THE and A or AN, are considered as demonstrative or distinguishing adjectives.

Adjectives can be distributed into three main classes :

1—descriptive adjectives : good, bad, happy, hard, etc. ;

2—indicating adjectives,

including possessive adjectives : my, ours, etc. ;

demonstrative adjectives : this, that, etc.,

and other less important groups ;

3—adjectives of number and amount,

including cardinal numerals : one, two, three, etc. ;

ordinal numerals : first, second, etc.,

and words like " some," " all," " each," " many," " much," " little."

ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES.

" The man who stands here will address the meeting." " Who stands here," being a group of words containing a subject and a predicate, and forming part of a complete sentence, is called a " CLAUSE," and as it is used exactly as an adjective to qualify the word " man " (subject of the main clause), it is called an ADJECTIVE-CLAUSE.

ADJECTIVE-EQUIVALENTS.

Any word, not being an adjective, or any phrase or clause which is used to qualify a noun in the sentence, is called an ADJECTIVE-EQUIVALENT.

WORD : A mountain pass.

PHRASE : The corner of the room is dark.

CLAUSE : The book which you lent me is lost.

(See ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES and ADJECTIVE-PHRASES)

ADJECTIVE-PHRASES.

"The owner OF THE HOUSE which is for sale will be here to-day." "Of the house" is equivalent to an adjective qualifying "owner," and it is called an ADJECTIVE-PHRASE. The difference between a clause and a phrase is that, whereas a phrase is a group of words containing no subject or predicate of its own, a clause is a group containing a subject and a predicate.

(In the group of words "of the house," there is neither subject nor predicate ; in "which is for sale," there is a subject "which," and a predicate "is for sale." The former group is therefore a PHRASE, and the second a CLAUSE).

ADVERBS.

An ADVERB (see page 65) may denote :

TIME : now, then, before, after, etc. ;

PLACE : here, there, in, out, etc. ;

MANNER : well, badly, how, etc. ;

ORDER or REPETITION : firstly, secondly, once, twice, often, etc. ;

DEGREE : very, exceedingly, nearly, more, less, etc. ;

CAUSE : therefore, consequently, etc.

An adverb may qualify not only a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, but also a whole sentence, in which case it is called a SENTENCE-ADVERB.

"Accordingly, therefore, nevertheless, however, also, though, possibly, only, merely," etc., etc., are SENTENCE-ADVERBS.

ADVERB-CLAUSES.

An ADVERB-CLAUSE is a group of words containing a subject and a predicate of its own and doing the work of an adverb.
Example :

"He will leave when he can." "When he can," fulfilling here the function of an adverb of time, is an ADVERB-CLAUSE.

Adverb-clauses are introduced by the words :

when, as, since, before, after, while (TIME).—When I go, follow me.

where (PLACE).—I cannot go where you are going.

because (CAUSE).—I will go, because I like you.

that (in order that) (PURPOSE).—I will go, that you may be satisfied.

so (adjective or adverb) **that** (RESULT).—I am so tired that I can hardly if (CONDITION).—If you go, I shall go. [move.]

although } (CONCESSION).—Though you may go, I will stay here.
though }

as (and a verb, MANNER)

as (and an adjective or adverb,
DEGREE)

than (with an adverb or an ad-
jective, DEGREE)

} (COMPARISON) Do as we do.
I am as tired as you
(are tired)
Few can play better
than he can.

NOTE.—The above conjunctions may also introduce clauses other than adverb-clauses (see NOUN-CLAUSES and ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES).

ADVERB-EQUIVALENTS.

Any word, not being an adverb, or any phrase or clause which is used as an adverb is called an ADVERB-EQUIVALENT. Examples are given under ADVERB-CLAUSES and ADVERB-PHRASES.

ADVERB-PHRASES.

“They work in the country.” The group of words “in the country,” showing the place WHERE the subject (they) does the action denoted by the verb (work) is equivalent to an adverb, and having no subject and predicate of its own, is an ADVERB-PHRASE.

AFFIX.

The word “affix” is sometimes used instead of “prefix” or “suffix” as a general term applicable to both.

AGREEMENT.—See CONCORD.

ALLEGORY.

An ALLEGORY is a continued metaphor. Fables and parables are allegories (see METAPHOR).

AMBIGUITY.

A sentence or expression susceptible of two different meanings is said to be AMBIGUOUS :

“He is an intimate friend of the doctor who performed the operation and is now permanently residing in Surrey.” Who resides in Surrey? “He,” or “the doctor”? (The ambiguity would be removed by the insertion of a comma after “operation.”)

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCE.

To analyze a sentence (i.e. a complete thought expressed in words), is to consider separately the parts of which it is made up. Essentially, every sentence consists of two parts : a subject and a predicate, into which all the other words in the sentence can be divided.

ANTECEDENT.

The word ANTECEDENT means "that which comes before," and is applied to a noun (or its equivalent) preceding a relative pronoun (viz. : that, who, whose, whom, to whom, which, what, as) which stands for it.

In the following sentence : "Is this the lady whose ticket you have lost ?" the word "lady" is the antecedent of "whose."

ANTITHESIS.

A figure of speech by which opposite or dissimilar ideas are placed in striking contrast :

God made the country and man made the town.

APOSTROPHE.

The APOSTROPHE (') is used to mark the omission of a letter in a word : don't, shan't ; or as the sign of the genitive (possessive) case : John's book.

The genitive case of singular nouns is formed by adding 's : boy, boy's.

The genitive case of plural nouns is formed—

- (1) by adding an apostrophe to the noun if the plural ends in **s** or **es** : boys, boys' ; asses, asses' ;
- (2) by adding 's to the noun if the plural does not end in **s** : men, men's.

(There are some exceptional cases, e.g., for conscience' sake. Foreign words ending in **es** frequently take the apostrophe only : Socrates' speech, Moses' rule).

APPOSITION.

Two or more nouns or noun-equivalents denoting the same person or thing are said to be in **APPOSITION**. Ex. :

George V., King of England, was born in 1865.

"King of England" is in apposition to "George V."

A noun-clause, i.e., a clause performing the duty of a noun in the sentence, may be in apposition. Ex. :

We gave him the advice that it was desirable to desist from the attempt.

"That it was desirable, etc." is a noun-clause in apposition to "advice."

See **PROVISIONAL SUBJECT** and **PROVISIONAL OBJECT**.

ARCHAISM.

An **ARCHAISM** is an obsolete word or idiom :

prithce, sirrah, peradventure, I wot, I trow, etc.

ARTICLE.

The definite article, **THE**, and the indefinite article, **A** or **AN**, are regarded as demonstrative adjectives.

ASPIRATE.

The letter **h**, when pronounced, is called "**ASPIRATE**."

ATTRIBUTE.

An **ATTRIBUTE** is any quality, property or characteristic that is ascribed to a person, thing, action or state. Ex. :

This handsome dress fits you perfectly.

The adjective "handsome" is an attribute to "dress," and the adverb "perfectly" an attribute to "fits."

AUXILIARY VERBS.

"Auxiliary" means "helping." An English verb cannot be fully conjugated without the help of other verbs which, for this reason, are called **AUXILIARY**. Such verbs supply what is wanting to express fully voice, tense and mood. The future tense, for instance, is expressed with the help of **SHALL** or **WILL** : the subjunctive mood is often formed with **MAY** or **MIGHT** (he

works that he MAY succeed) ; the passive voice can be formed only by the use of BE.

The auxiliary verbs are :

For the voice : BE.

For the tenses : HAVE, BE, SHALL, WILL, DO.

For the moods : MAY, MIGHT, SHOULD, WOULD.

Some of the above verbs can also be used as ordinary verbs, retaining their original meaning : BE, HAVE and DO can thus be used. Examples :

I am tired. Have my book. Do what I tell you.

(An auxiliary verb is followed either by a participle : he has gone, I am writing ; or by an infinitive without " to " : I shall go ; he tried hard in order that he might not fail).

BARBARISM.

A BARBARISM is the use of words or expressions not in accordance with the classical standard of a language.

CARDINAL NUMERAL ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS.

The CARDINAL NUMERAL ADJECTIVES are words which denote number : one, two, three, twenty, sixty, etc. When used before a noun (two books, six chairs) these words are adjectives, and when used alone in place of a noun (I saw twenty) they are pronouns.

The words HUNDRED, THOUSAND, MILLION, may be used as nouns and put in the plural.

CASES.

Let us consider the following simple sentence : " William brought me your brother's bag."

- 1.—The word " William," subject of " brought," is said to be in the NOMINATIVE CASE.
- 2.—The word " bag," direct object of " brought," is said to be in the ACCUSATIVE CASE.
- 3.—The word " me " (TO me), indirect object of " brought," is said to be in the DATIVE CASE.

4.—The word “brother’s,” denoting the owner of the bag, is said to be in the GENITIVE CASE.

A fifth Case is the VOCATIVE (Nominative of address), as in : “William, bring me the bag,” in which sentence, the word “William,” naming the person addressed, is said to be in the VOCATIVE CASE.

“CASE” is thus a term used to indicate the relationship of a noun (or noun-equivalent) to other words in the sentence.

The Genitive Case is also called the Possessive Case.

(See NOMINATIVE, ACCUSATIVE, DATIVE, GENITIVE, and VOCATIVE CASE).

Differences of Case are most easily seen in the Personal Pronouns, which have various forms according to Case.

(See PERSONAL PRONOUNS).

CASE-PHRASES.

A CASE-PHRASE is the combination of a preposition with a noun or pronoun. Example :

“He brought the bag to me.”

To me is a phrase equivalent to the dative case.

“The kindness of your brother has made this possible.”

Of your brother is a phrase equivalent to the genitive case (brother’s).

To me and of your brother are CASE-PHRASES.

CLAUSES.

(See pages 69, 70, and ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES).

COGNATE OBJECT.

In expressions such as : “die the death,” “run a race,” “fight a good fight,” etc., the objects : death, race, fight, are called COGNATE OBJECTS, because they have a meaning akin to that of the verbs (die, run, fight).

COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

A COLLECTIVE NOUN is the name of a collection of several persons or things considered as one.

Multitude, company, committee, Parliament, herd, flock, crowd, etc.
are COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

COLLOQUIALISM.

A form of speech used in conversation, but not in literary language. Examples :

I have already got that book.

He is up against a tough proposition.

COMMON NOUN.

A COMMON NOUN is a name given to all individuals of the same class or kind, e.g., river, boy, horse, tree, table, town.

COMPARATIVE DEGREE OF ADJECTIVES.

When we say : "Robert is taller than John" ; "Lead is heavier than aluminium," we compare two persons or things. The adjectives "taller," "heavier," by which a quality is attributed in a greater degree to one of the two persons or things, are said to be in the COMPARATIVE DEGREE.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

Some ADVERBS (mostly of manner, duration, space and degree) may be used in the COMPARATIVE :

soon, sooner, hard, harder, near, nearer, late, later, etc.

COMPLEMENT.

This term used to be applied to PREDICATIVE WORDS.

(See PREDICATIVE ADJECTIVES, PREDICATIVE NOUNS, PREDICATIVE PRONOUNS).

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

A COMPLEX SENTENCE is one that contains, besides a principal clause or predication, one or more subordinate clauses or predications having each its own subject and predicate.

The man who is here will address the meeting.

He will start when he can.

He did not foresee that the scheme would be a failure.

The above are complex sentences, containing, in addition to the principal clauses (the man . . . will address the meeting, —he will start,—he did not foresee), the subordinate clauses "who is here," "when he can," "that the scheme would be a failure."

COMPOUND CONJUNCTIONS.

Groups of words such as "so that," "in order that," "in case," etc., are called COMPOUND CONJUNCTIONS.

COMPOUND FORM OF VERBS.

A verb is said to be in a COMPOUND FORM when used with an auxiliary : I am running ; you do not reply ; will he have finished, —are COMPOUND FORMS of "run," "reply," and "finish."

COMPOUND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

They are the following (used interrogatively) : Whoever, whatever, whichever.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself ; ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

(See EMPHASIZING PRONOUNS and REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS).

COMPOUND PREPOSITIONS.

Groups of words such as "out of," "as to," "as for," "because of," "according to," "in order to," "with a view to," etc., are called COMPOUND PREPOSITIONS.

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

They are the same as the ordinary relative pronouns, with the addition of SO, EVER, or SOEVER :

whoso, whoever, whichever, whatever, whosoever,
whichever, whatsoever.

The term COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUN is also used for "what" meaning "that which." Example :

Show me what (=that which) you have done.

All the above pronouns usually contain their antecedents in themselves.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

(See DOUBLE SENTENCE and MULTIPLE SENTENCE).

COMPOUND SUBJECT.

If instead of ONE noun as subject there are two or more, connected by AND, the SUBJECT is COMPOUND :

Your son and John will accompany us.

CONCORD OR AGREEMENT.

In certain cases one word must take the same gender, number, case, or the same number and person as another word. This agreement is the CONCORD.

(For the rules of CONCORD, see Part I., page 21).

CONCRETE NOUNS.

Any noun which is not an abstract noun, i.e., which does not name a quality, an action or a state, is a CONCRETE NOUN :

boy, house, river, book, John, chair, etc., are CONCRETE NOUNS.

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES.

These are clauses which express a supposition or condition ; they are introduced by the conjunctions IF, UNLESS, LEST (see ADVERB-CLAUSES).

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

To enumerate in their proper order the combinations and inflexions used to denote voice, mood, tense, number, and person in a verb is to CONJUGATE the verb.

CONJUNCTIONS (see page 65).

The principal CONJUNCTIONS are :

after, although, and, as, because, before, but, ere, either, for, if, lest, neither, nor, or, provided, seeing, since, that, than, though, till, unless, until, when, whence, whenever, where, whereas, wherever, whether, whither, while, why.

CONJUNCTIONAL EXPRESSIONS.

When several words are used as a conjunction, the expression is called CONJUNCTIONAL. Ex. :

in so far as, as soon as, etc.

CONSONANTS.

All letters except **a, e, i, o, u** (and **w** and **y**, which are called semi-vowels) represent CONSONANT sounds.

CONTINUATIVE AND RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

(a) CONTINUATIVE PRONOUNS.—Sometimes the relative pronouns “**who**,” “**which**,” mean : **AND** he, **AND** she, **AND** it, **AND** they, as in the following sentences :

We saw your brother **who** (and he) told us that he would come.
He tried the scheme, **which** (and it) was found successful.

They are then called CONTINUATIVE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

(b) RESTRICTIVE (or DEFINING) PRONOUNS.—When relative pronouns restrict the application of the antecedent, they are called RESTRICTIVE or DEFINING :

I read the book that you sent me.
The man **who** spoke to them is my friend.

“**THAT**” is always RESTRICTIVE.

Continuative relative pronouns introduce clauses co-ordinate with the main clause.

Restrictive relative pronouns introduce subordinate adjective-clauses.

CONTINUATIVE RELATIVE ADVERBS.

“**When**” meaning “and then,” and “**where**” meaning “and there” are called CONTINUATIVE RELATIVE ADVERBS.

I shall be in town next week, **when** (and then) I intend calling upon you.

Go to the restaurant, **where** (and there) you will find him.

NOTE.—The above are DOUBLE and not COMPLEX sentences.

CO-ORDINATE CLAUSES (See page 71).

Any one of the clauses that make up a double or multiple sentence is called CO-ORDINATE. Ex. :

He took his things and went away.

I entered the room, put my bag on a table, and then I began to look at the documents.

CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions which join independent words, phrases, or clauses, are called CO-ORDINATING. “He will come, or his

brother will wire." In this double sentence, there are two clauses which are of equal rank and therefore independent of each other, "he will come," and "his brother will wire." The two clauses are called CO-ORDINATE, the conjunction "OR" which unites them being a CO-ORDINATING conjunction. "And," "or," "but," "for," "both" (followed by "and"), "either" (followed by "or"), are co-ordinating conjunctions.

CONTINUOUS TENSE-FORM OF VERBS.

When the verb "to be" is used with a present participle, as in : I am smoking ; he was playing ; they will be going ;—the verb is said to be in the CONTINUOUS TENSE-FORM, which shows the progression or continuance of an action or state.—The continuous or progressive tense can be used to show that an action (or state) is going on now : I am smoking ;—or was going on at some past date : I was smoking ;—or will be going on at some time in the future : I shall be smoking ;—or was about to be going on at some point of time in the past : I said that I should be staying in London.

The perfect tenses can also have continuous forms :

I have been walking ;	I had been walking ;
I shall have been walking ;	I should have been walking.

Continuous tenses are sometimes called IMPERFECT tenses.

COPULA.

A verb used with a predicative adjective, noun, or pronoun (to be, to become, to grow, etc.).

(The terms "copula" and "copulative" are now regarded by first class authorities as unnecessary in grammar).

DATIVE CASE.

"He gave me an apple." "The tailor made him a new suit." The words "me" and "him" meaning : TO me, FOR him, are indirect objects of the verbs "gave" and "made" (the direct objects being : an apple, a new suit) ; they are said to be in the DATIVE CASE.

The DATIVE CASE is the case of the INDIRECT OBJECT,—see OBJECT (indirect).

DATIVE PHRASES.

He gave me an apple.—The tailor made him a new suit.

The above sentences may be changed thus :

He gave an apple to me.—The tailor made a new suit for him.

To ME, and FOR HIM are then called DATIVE PHRASES. (The pronouns ME and HIM are in the accusative, because they are governed by the prepositions TO and FOR, but the phrase itself is equivalent to a dative case).

DECLENSION.

To give a list of the case-forms of a noun or a pronoun is to give its DECLENSION. In modern English, only the personal pronouns (HE, SHE, IT) have a full declension.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Some verbs have not all the usual moods and tenses, and for this reason are called DEFECTIVE. They are :

shall, will, may, must, can, dare, beware, forego.

DEFINITE ARTICLE.—See ARTICLE.

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

The DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES, also called DISTINGUISHING ADJECTIVES are :

1.—The definite and indefinite articles : THE, A or AN.

2.—This, these, that, those, such, same, selfsame, yon, yonder.

Demonstrative adjectives are followed by a noun :

this town, those books, such boys.

DEMONSTRATIVE means : "pointing out."

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

"This, these, that, those, such, same," not followed by a noun, are DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS :

I like this.

Bring me those.

DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES.

Those which describe a person or thing :

good, bad, large, small, etc.

DIPHTHONG.

A DIPHTHONG is the union of two vowel sounds pronounced without a break between them, as :

I in WIRE, OI in MOIST, EU in EUSTON, OU in MOUSE, OW in NOW.
DIPHTHONG means : two sounds (in one).

DIRECT OBJECT.

See OBJECT and ACCUSATIVE CASE.

DISTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES.

Each, every, either, neither (used with nouns).

DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS.

Each, either, neither (used alone) ; everybody, everyone.

DOUBLE ACCUSATIVE.

Some verbs, like TEACH, ASK, govern two accusatives, that is to say, may have two direct objects.

" I teach the boy grammar." " You ask me my name."

" The boy," and " grammar " ; " me " and " my name " are direct objects and therefore ACCUSATIVES. (Some grammarians regard " the boy," in the first sentence, as a dative : to the boy).

DOUBLE SENTENCES (COMPOUND SENTENCES).

A sentence which contains two co-ordinate clauses, i.e., two clauses of equal rank, and joined by a co-ordinating conjunction (AND, BUT, OR, NOR, FOR) is called a DOUBLE SENTENCE. Example :

He entered the room, but did not advance towards his hostess.

A double sentence may contain a subordinate clause in addition to the co-ordinate clauses. Thus the adverb-clause " though she was waiting to receive him " might be added to the above double sentence without changing its character.

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES.

ELLIPSIS means " omission." An ELLIPTICAL SENTENCE is one in which one or several words are omitted without destroying the meaning, because the omitted words are suggested by the rest of the sentence, as, for instance :

Begin (you) the work at once. You are wealthier than I (am wealthy).
These are the very words (which) he said.

EMPHATIC FORM OF CONJUGATION.

In the EMPHATIC FORM OF CONJUGATION, the auxiliary DO is used before the verb in affirmative sentences :

I did say it.—We do object to your behaviour.—Do come.

EMPHASIZING PRONOUNS.

MYSELF, OURSELVES, THYSELF, YOURSELF, YOURSELVES, HIMSELF, HERSELF, ITSELF, THEMSELVES, and ONESELF, may be used as emphatic forms of personal pronouns, in which case they generally stand in apposition to a noun or pronoun :

I will do it myself.—Mrs. X —herself dispatched the telegram.
MYSELF and HERSELF merely emphasize I and Mrs. X—.

Emphasizing pronouns should be carefully distinguished from reflexive pronouns, which are similar in form, but fulfil an entirely different function in the sentence (see REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS).

ENLARGEMENT OF SUBJECT.

The subject is said to be ENLARGED by any adjective or adjective-equivalent referring to it. Example :

The leader of the army was killed (see ADJECTIVE-EQUIVALENT).

EPITHETS (EPITHET-ADJECTIVES, EPITHET-NOUNS).

An adjective which is placed next to the noun it qualifies is called an EPITHET-ADJECTIVE. Ex. :

That lovely dress suits you.

Similarly, a noun may be used as an epithet in front of another noun. Ex. :

Her music teacher comes twice a week.

ETYMOLOGY.

ETYMOLOGY means a true account (of words) and is, therefore, that part of grammar which deals with the classification, inflexion and origin of words.

EUPHEMISM.

Calling an unpleasant thing by a pleasant (or less unpleasant) name :

He left the country for reasons best known to himself.
A terminological inexactitude (i.e., a lie).

EUPHONY.

EUPHONY can be defined as an harmonious combination of sounds.

EXTENSION OF PREDICATE.

The EXTENSION OF THE PREDICATE consists of any adverb or adverb-equivalent referring to the verb. Ex. :

I was waiting in the shop (adverb-equivalent referring to "was waiting").—(See ADVERB-EQUIVALENT).

FACTITIVE OBJECT.

(See VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION.)

FINITE VERB.

Any part of the verb except the infinitive, the participle and the gerund, is said to be FINITE, i.e., it is used with a subject from which it takes its number and person.

FUTURE TENSE.

The terms "past," "present," and "future" cannot and need not be defined. "Tense" means "time"; therefore the FUTURE TENSE is used to denote :

- (a) events that are to happen after the present time :

I shall write (FUTURE SIMPLE OR FUTURE INDEFINITE) ;

- (b) events that will be completed at some future time :

I shall have written then (FUTURE PERFECT) ;

- (c) events that were about to happen after a certain time in the past :

He said he would write (FUTURE IN THE PAST) ;

- (d) events considered as complete after some point of time in the past :

He thought that I should have written by then

(FUTURE PERFECT IN THE PAST).

GENDER.

Names of all males are said to be of the masculine gender :—of all females, of the feminine gender ;—and of all inanimate things, of the neuter gender. Thus, in modern English, gender

depends entirely upon sex, GRAMMATICAL gender, such as existed in Greek and Latin and still exists in most modern languages, having disappeared a long time ago. As an adjective is not inflected and does not agree with its noun in gender, the only use of the words "masculine," "feminine," and "neuter" is in connection with the pronouns HE, SHE, IT. "Gender" means "kind" or "class."

GENITIVE CASE (POSSESSIVE CASE).

The GENITIVE case denotes possession, ownership, or connection with. Examples :

Arthur's house ; whose books are these ?

John's face ; the boys' books ; yesterday's newspapers.

The genitive case is the only case of nouns in English that is distinguished by an inflexion.

GENITIVE-EQUIVALENTS.

A phrase with "of" instead of the genitive, as in "the face of the boy," for : "the boy's face," is a GENITIVE-PHRASE or GENITIVE-EQUIVALENT.

GERUND.

A GERUND is a verb-noun, i.e., a noun formed from a verb : seeing, having seen, being seen, having been seen. Although it is a noun, a gerund has tenses and voices, takes the same constructions as the verb from which it is formed, and may be qualified by adverbs.

It may be used :

- (a) as SUBJECT : Crossing the Channel takes but a short time.
- (b) as OBJECT : I like smoking a good cigar.
- (c) PREDICATIVELY : Seeing is believing.
- (d) with a PREPOSITION : After looking at the pictures he went away.
- (e) ADVERBIALY, after LIKE and NEAR : He was near being shot.

A gerund should not be confused with a present participle, although both end in ING. The gerund is used as a NOUN ; the participle, past and present, as an ADJECTIVE.

GRAMMAR.—The science of language.

HYPERBOLE.

A statement made in exaggerated terms :

He nearly died of laughter.

HYPOTHETICAL SENTENCES (IF-CLAUSE).

"I will do this if you oblige me." This complex sentence, in which the second clause is a supposition or hypothesis, is called an HYPOTHETICAL SENTENCE.

HYPHEN.

The HYPHEN (-) is used to separate the syllables of a word (talk-ing), or to join two or more words so as to make a compound word (sea-gull, never-to-be-forgotten).

HYBRIDS or HYBRID WORDS.

Words made up of parts taken from different languages are called HYBRIDS : martyrdom (Greek-English) ; grandfather (French-English), etc., are hybrids. "Hybrid" means "mongrel."

IDIOM.

A mode of expression peculiar to a language. It cannot usually be translated literally into another language :

I made up my mind to do this.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

The IMPERATIVE MOOD is that form of the verb which is used to command, to request, to exhort, or to advise, as :

begin at once ; kindly hand me the paper ; be careful.

The imperative has only one person, the second, for the singular and the plural :

begin,—hand,—be (thou or you)

But a first and third person can be formed with the help of "let" :

let them begin at once ;

let me hand you my paper ; let her be careful.

"Let" is then the actual imperative.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

(See CONTINUOUS or PROGRESSIVE TENSE).

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

Those verbs are called IMPERSONAL or UNIPERSONAL which cannot be used in the 1st and 2nd persons, but only in the 3rd, and either have no subject expressed, as in : *methinks*,--or have only the indefinite *IT* as subject, as in :

it rains ; it will snow. (See also PROVISIONAL SUBJECT).

INCOMPLETE PREDICATION.

(See VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION, and PREDICATIVE ADJECTIVES, NOUNS, PRONOUNS).

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

Pronouns which are used without distinct reference to any definite person or thing, but rather vaguely and in a general way, are INDEFINITE PRONOUNS. Such are :

one, anybody, none, aught, naught, other, any, some, either, neither, many, much, little, all, it (as indefinite subject : *It is fine to-day*), *enough, each, few.*

When, however, the above words are followed by a noun (any person, some bread, much trouble, etc.), they are adjectives, not pronouns, since they do not then stand for a noun.

INDEFINITE or SIMPLE TENSES.

The INDEFINITE or SIMPLE TENSES are :

the PRESENT INDEFINITE :	<i>I write ;</i>
the PAST „	<i>I wrote ;</i>
the FUTURE „	<i>I shall write.</i>

The above tenses are called indefinite or simple, because the verb merely states that an action is taking place, has taken place, or will take place, without saying anything about the completeness or incompleteness of the action at the time spoken of.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

A verb is in the INDICATIVE MOOD :

1.—When a direct and unconditional statement is expressed :

*I am quite well ; he wrote yesterday ;
we shall begin next week.*

2.—When a question is asked :

Are you quite well ? did he write yesterday ?
will you begin next week ?

3.—When a supposition or condition is expressed, no implication being made as to whether the condition is fulfilled or not :

If you are quite well (I do not know whether you are or not), let us go ;

if he wrote yesterday (I do not know whether he did or not), everything is right.

NOTE that when the non-fulfilment of the condition is implied, the subjunctive mood is used. Example :

If you were to be quite well (which is unlikely), we might go.
(See SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD).

INDIRECT OBJECT.—(See OBJECT, pages 68-69.)

INFINITIVE.

The INFINITIVE is, like the gerund, a verb-noun (although it does not end in *ing*), i.e., a noun formed from a verb. It may be used with *to* :

1.—as a verb-noun :

as SUBJECT : To see is to believe (to see, SUBJECT of is) ;

as OBJECT : I like to hear that music
(to hear, OBJECT of I like) ;

PREDICATIVELY : Our wish is to remain here
(to remain, part of the PREDICATE).

2.—to qualify a verb, a noun, or an adjective :

as an ADVERB, with a VERB, to express purpose : He went out to look for a house ;

as an ADVERB with an ADJECTIVE : They were not slow to see this ;

as an ADJECTIVE, to qualify a NOUN : A flat to let.

It is used without *to* :

after verbs like *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *let*, *dare* : I dare not move ;

after verbs such as *hear*, *feel*, *need*, *bid*, *make*, as a second object :

I hear the bells ring (the bells, first object ; ring, second object).

INFLEXION.

An INFLEXION is a change in the form of the word to express some modification in the meaning. All kinds of words may be inflected, except prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

Nouns and pronouns are inflected to express gender, number and case :

NOUNS : lion, lioness ; house, houses ; William, William's.

PRONOUNS : he, him ; she, her ; who, whose, whom.

Adjectives and adverbs are inflected to mark degree :

ADJECTIVES : warm, warmer, warmest.

ADVERBS : soon, sooner, soonest.

Verbs are inflected to show mood, tense, number and person :
see, sees, saw, sawest, seen.

INTERJECTION (See page 65).

The word " interjection " means : thrown in between.

An INTERJECTION is not an essential part of a sentence. Its omission would neither destroy nor alter the meaning.

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES.

They are : WHAT ? and WHICH ?

WHAT blunder has he made ? WHICH book do you mean ?

INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS.

Used in asking questions : WHERE, WHENCE, WHITHER, WHEN, HOW, WHY :

WHY did you do that ?

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

These pronouns are the following : WHO (WHOSE, WHOM), WHICH, WHAT :

WHO is he ?

WHAT is that ?

INTRANSITIVE (or NEUTER) VERBS.

An INTRANSITIVE VERB denotes an action, state, or feeling which does not pass from the agent or doer to an object, but terminates in the doer or agent himself. To sleep, to live, to die, to flow, etc., are generally intransitive :

Did you sleep well?

Note that most intransitive verbs can sometimes be used transitively. Example :

He runs very well (intransitively).

The Railway is running a fresh service of trains (transitively).

Some intransitive verbs may take an object having a meaning closely connected with their own :

To fight a good fight (see COGNATE OBJECT).

A few intransitive verbs are intimately connected with a following preposition : laugh at, rely on, etc., and may be regarded as forming a compound transitive verb.

IRREGULAR (or STRONG) VERBS.

IRREGULAR VERBS are those which form their past tense by changing the vowel of the present without the addition of a suffix. Examples :

write, wrote ; fall, fell ; draw, drew.

The past participle is sometimes formed by the addition of n, en or ne. Ex. :

arise, arose, arisen ; bear, bore, borne.

Irregular verbs are also called STRONG VERBS.

MAIN CLAUSE IN COMPLEX SENTENCES.

The MAIN CLAUSE is the clause which expresses the main idea in the sentence. It often makes complete sense by itself :

Come to see me to-morrow, unless you are unavoidably prevented.

When the sentence contains subordinate noun-clauses, the main clause does not make complete sense :

Whether I can come is uncertain.

"Is uncertain" is incomplete in meaning, because the noun-clause (whether I can come) is its subject.

In a short sentence, there is no difficulty in finding the main clause.

In a long sentence, the main clause can be found by stating the idea in as few words as possible. Ex. :

“On the evidence which was submitted to him, the judge held that no consent has ever been given by the plaintiff company, and that, in the circumstances, the printing of the booklet infringed the copyright in the six photographs.”

The central idea can be summed up in the words : “The judge held a particular view.” From this it is clear that the main verb is “held,” and the main clause is, therefore, “on the evidence the judge held.”

METAPHOR.

A special kind of comparison between two things which are unlike except in one point. The resemblance is only implied, and not expressly stated with the use of LIKE or AS.

Example : The camel is the ship of the desert.

(Distinguish METAPHOR from SIMILE).

MONOSYLLABLE.

A word of one syllable is called MONOSYLLABLE. Ex. :
him, but, man.

MOOD.

MOOD means : mode or manner. There are three moods of the verbs : the INDICATIVE, the IMPERATIVE, and the SUBJUNCTIVE. —(See under each heading).

MULTIPLE SENTENCES.

(See pages 71-72, and ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES).

NEGATIVE PARTICLE.

The word “no” is called a NEGATIVE PARTICLE.

NEUTER.

(See GENDER, and INTRANSITIVE VERBS).

NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE.

This being the case, we shall begin at once.

The work having been completed, he went away.

All things considered, I prefer not to go.

In the above sentences, the phrases "this being the case," "the work having been completed," "all things considered," are called **NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE** constructions. They consist of a noun or pronoun together with a participle, and have no **GRAMMATICAL** connection with the rest of the sentence.

A nominative absolute is really equivalent to an adverb-clause, the above sentences meaning : As this is the case,—when the work was completed,—after I have considered all things.

"Absolute" means : set free, not connected.

NOUN (See pages 64, 77, 88).

NOUN-CLAUSE.

A **NOUN-CLAUSE** is a clause that does the work of a noun, and may be used :

as **SUBJECT** : How this happened is uncertain;

as **OBJECT** : I know that he will write ;

PREDICATIVELY : My opinion is that they will succeed ;

in **APPOSITION** : I am unshaken in the conviction that he will succeed (in apposition to "conviction") ;

It is unlikely that he will come (in apposition to "it").

As a simple sentence must be either a statement, a question, a desire, or an exclamation, a noun-clause, being formed out of a simple sentence, is either a dependent statement, a dependent desire, a dependent question, or a dependent exclamation.

Ex. :

I trust that you will understand

(STATEMENT : you will understand).

I am asking what you have done

(QUESTION : what have you done ?)

I wish you may live long (DESIRE : may you live long).

See how unwise you are !

(EXCLAMATION : how unwise you are !)

NUMBER.

When a noun, pronoun, adjective or verb refers to one thing only, it is in the singular. If it refers to more than one thing, it is in the plural. The singular and the plural are thus the two numbers : man, men ; he, they.

Verbs agree with their subject in number.

NUMERALS.

See CARDINAL NUMERAL ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS, AND
ORDINAL NUMERAL ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS.

OBJECT (DIRECT AND INDIRECT).—See p. 68.

OBJECTIVE CASE.—See ACCUSATIVE CASE.

OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

A SUBJUNCTIVE expressing a wish : Long LIVE the King !

ORDINAL NUMERAL ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS.

ORDINAL NUMERALS denote the order or rank in which a person or thing is placed, as : first, second, third, tenth, etc. They may be either adjectives (the FIRST man), or pronouns (he was THE FIRST to succeed).

ORTHOGRAPHY.

ORTHOGRAPHY means : correct spelling.

PARALLEL CLAUSES.

Those which are purposely framed on a similar pattern, so as to give a sentence a balanced structure. Ex. :

The trees were uprooted by the gale ; nearly every house was demolished ; even the church was damaged beyond repair.

PARENTHESIS.

This word is used to designate a phrase or sentence inserted by way of comment or explanation in a larger sentence that is completely formed without it. Ex. :

If we believe (as we ought to do) that there is no policy like politeness, etc.

PARSING.

To PARSE is to indicate the part of speech to which a word belongs and to describe its grammatical function.

PARTICIPIAL PHRASES.

A PARTICIPIAL PHRASE is an adjective-phrase beginning with a participle. Examples :

I saw him trying to escape.

Having decided this matter, we will proceed to other business.

PARTICIPLES.

A PARTICIPLE may be defined as a part of the verb which can be used as an adjective :

I saw him running ("running" qualifies "him").

There are two participles : the PRESENT and the PAST.

The present participle ends in ING :

smoking, writing, playing, speaking.

The past participle may end in ED, D, or T (walked, sold, smelt), or in N or EN (known, eaten).

In some cases the past participle has a different vowel from that of the present tense (fly, flown ; freeze, frozen) ; in other cases the past participle has the same form as the present tense (burst, burst ; hit, hit).

The past participle can be obtained by putting " I have " in front of the verb. Ex. :

dwell.—(I have) dwelt ; teach.—(I have) taught.

Participles, being adjectives, are never used as subjects or objects, or after a preposition.

They may have an object :

Obedying the laws, he lived happily ;

—and be qualified by adverbs :

Always obeying the laws, he lived happily.

Participles are used :

(1) as PURE ADJECTIVES : running water, a damaged book ;

(2) to INTRODUCE PHRASES : I found him reading a book ; he will leave the firm regretted by all ;

(3) in TENSE or VOICE FORMS : I am smoking ; I have smoked a cigar ; the cigar has been smoked.

PARTS OF SPEECH.—(See page 63).

A word is not always the same part of speech ; the class to which it belongs is decided by its function in the sentence :

A poor man (ADJECTIVE) ; he gives money to the poor (NOUN) ;
I have never seen him since (ADVERB) ;

since (CONJUNCTION) this is your view, there is no more to be said ;

since (PREPOSITION) that day, he has never been seen.

PASSIVE VOICE.

While in the active voice the subject of the sentence names the doer of the action, in the PASSIVE VOICE the subject of the sentence names the person or thing that undergoes the action :

John hurt Arthur ; John was hurt by Arthur

“ John,” subject of “ hurt ” and “ was hurt,” is the doer in the first case and the sufferer in the second. “ Hurt ” is in the active voice in the first sentence, while in the second “ was hurt ” is in the passive voice.

PAST TENSE.

Tense means “ time ”. The PAST TENSE is used when we refer to an action as having taken place before the time of speaking : I wrote, he replied, they were ill.

If the verb denotes an action that was continuous (progressive), i.e., going on in the past, we have the PAST CONTINUOUS : I was writing, etc.

The past tense is also called PRETERITE, from the Latin "praeteritus," which means "elapsed."

PERFECT TENSE.

In grammar, "perfect" means "completed," and this expression is used to mark that the action spoken of is, has been, or will be entirely completed at the time denoted by the verb. We have thus :

- (1) the PRESENT PERFECT : I have written ;
- (2) the PAST PERFECT : I had written ;
- (3) the FUTURE PERFECT : I shall have written ;
- (4) the FUTURE PERFECT in the PAST : I should have written.

The above are in the INDICATIVE MOOD ; but the SUBJUNCTIVE has also a PRESENT PERFECT and a PAST PERFECT : I have written, I had written (see page 56).

CONTINUOUS or PROGRESSIVE FORM :

I have been writing ;	I had been writing ;
I shall have been writing ;	I should have been writing.

PERIPHRAIS or CIRCUMLOCUTION.

A figure of speech which consists in expressing the meaning by means of several words instead of one or two ; a roundabout way of saying a simple thing. Ex. :

He has been reading the plays of the immortal Bard
(i.e., Shakespeare)

PERSON.

Pronouns have three persons, the first, the second and the third. The first person is the person who speaks : I, WE ; the second is the person spoken to : THOU, YOU ; the third is the person (or thing) spoken of : HE, SHE, IT, THEY.

All nouns, except those in the vocative case, are, of course, in the third person (see page 122).

Verbs agree with their subject in person :

I speak (the verb and subject are first person) ;
they speak (the verb and subject are in the third person).

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The following is a complete list of PERSONAL PRONOUNS :

SINGULAR.

PLURAL FOR
ALL GENDERS

1st person : NOMINATIVE CASE	I	we
ACCUSATIVE „	me	us
GENITIVE „	mine	ours
DATIVE „	me	us
2nd person : NOMINATIVE CASE	thou	you
ACCUSATIVE „	thee	you (ye)
GENITIVE „	thine	yours
DATIVE „	thee	you
3rd person : NOMINATIVE CASE	he, she, it	they
ACCUSATIVE „	him, her, it	them
GENITIVE „	his, hers	theirs
DATIVE „	him, her, it	them

MY, THY, HIS, OUR, YOUR, THEIR, followed by a noun, are properly

POSSESSIVE OR PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

MINE, OURS, HERS, HIS (not followed by a noun), THINE, YOURS, THEIRS, are properly

POSSESSIVE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

PHONETICS.

The science dealing with the sounds of the spoken language.

PHRASES.—(See page 72).

PHRASES are introduced by prepositions :

The book is on the table.

She was a woman of great literary attainments.

or by parts of the verbs which are not finite, viz. : participles, gerunds, infinitives :

Trusting to his luck, he took the bold step and succeeded.

I found him absorbed in a profound calculation.

While dictating his reply, he never took his eyes off me.

Are you doing this to surprise him ?

PLEONASM.

A needless repetition of the same idea in different words :

I fell down on my knees ;
he returned it back to me.

Not every pleonasm is to be considered incorrect. Ex. :

I saw it with my own eyes.

Here the pleonasm is deliberately used for emphasis.

PLUPERFECT.

What used to be called PLUPERFECT is, in the new terminology, called "past perfect."—(See PAST TENSE).

PLURAL.

PLURAL means "more than one." The plural number is therefore the form taken by a noun, pronoun, adjective, or verb, when more than one person (or thing) is referred to (see NUMBER).

POSITIVE DEGREE.

The simple form of an adjective or adverb is the POSITIVE DEGREE of the adjective or adverb :

good, bad, strong ;—soon, badly, etc.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES.

These are sometimes called, but wrongly, possessive pronouns, possessive adjective pronouns, or pronominal adjectives. They are :

my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their.

They are true adjectives, used before nouns :

my book, their house.

POSSESSIVE CASE.—See GENITIVE CASE.**POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.**

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS are :

mine, ours, thine, yours, his, hers, its, theirs.

In contrast to possessive adjectives, they are used alone :

This is theirs.

PREDICATE.—(See page 66).

The PREDICATE must always contain a verb, expressed or understood, since it is by means of a verb that we say something about a person or a thing. The verb may be :

- 1.—“ TO BE,” with an adjective, noun, pronoun, adverb, or phrase :

Your father	(subject)	is just	(predicate).
He	(subject)	is a lawyer	(predicate).
This	(subject)	is mine	(predicate).
They	(subject)	are there	(predicate).
You	(subject)	are in a bad temper	(predicate).

- 2.—Any finite verb, transitive or intransitive :

INTRANSITIVE : The boy sleeps.

TRANSITIVE : Robert will write a letter to his father.

PREDICATIVE ADJECTIVES.

An adjective is called PREDICATIVE when used in the predicate to show what the person or thing denoted by the subject is declared to be. Ex. :

I am happy.

An adjective may be used predicatively not only with the verb “ TO BE,” but with such verbs as : become, grow, look, feel, remain, seem, prove, to be called, to be made, to be found, etc. Ex. :

He remained inflexible. You look tired.

I feel hungry.

In a sentence which contains an object, an adjective which tells us what the object is made or named is also called a predicative adjective. Ex. :

His misfortunes made him wise.

Why do you call me good ?

PREDICATIVE NOUNS.

1.—Referring to the SUBJECT.—

A PREDICATIVE NOUN referring to the subject names the same person or thing as does the subject, and serves to complete the predicate after such verbs as : be, become, grow, look, be called, be made, be appointed, etc. Ex. :

He became manager ("manager," predicative noun, referring to the subject "he").

2.—Referring to the OBJECT.—

In some sentences containing an object the predicate is not complete without a noun naming the same person or thing as does the object. Ex. :

They appointed him secretary to the company ("secretary," predicative word referring to the object "him").

PREDICATIVE PRONOUNS.

A pronoun may be used predicatively, like an adjective or a noun. Ex. :

It is I. Who is he ?

PREFIX.

A PREFIX is a syllable put at the beginning of a word to vary its signification :

mistake, foretell, return, etc.

PREPOSITIONS.—(See page 65).

A preposition begins a phrase, and is said to GOVERN the noun or pronoun which follows it in the phrase. It forms with the noun or pronoun an adjective-phrase or an adverb-phrase. Example :

Where is the wool for the socks ?

"For the socks," qualifying the noun "wool," is the equivalent of an adjective, and is an adjective-phrase ; "for" is the preposition.

The wool is on, under, near the cushion.

"On the cushion" (or under, near the cushion), qualifying the verb "is," is the equivalent of an adverb, and is an adverb-phrase ; "on," "under," "near," are prepositions.

The principal PREPOSITIONS are :

about, above, across, after, against, along, amidst, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, beyond, but, by, concerning, considering, despite, down, during, except, for, from, in, into, near, next, notwithstanding, of, off, on, outside, over, past, pending, regarding, respecting, round, save, since, through, throughout, till, to, touching, toward, towards, under, underneath, until, unto, up, upon, with, within, without.

Some of the above prepositions are sometimes used as adverbs, i.e., to qualify a verb. Ex. :

I am going in. Come on ! He was running about.

PRESENT TENSE.

The PRESENT TENSE is the form of the verb which is used to denote an action or state which belongs to the time of speaking : I smoke, he plays, they feel happy.

The action or state expressed by the verb may be continuous (or progressive), in other words, going on : I am smoking, he is playing, they are feeling happy (present continuous tense)—or perfect, viz., complete : I have smoked, he has played, they have felt happy (present perfect tense).

PRETERITE TENSE.

The PRETERITE TENSE is the same as the past tense.

(See PAST TENSE).

PROGRESSIVE FORM OF VERBS.

(See CONTINUOUS TENSE-FORM).

PRONOUNS.—(See page 64).

PRONOUNS are classified as follows : PERSONAL, DEMONSTRATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, RELATIVE, INDEFINITE (including DISTRIBUTIVE and RECIPROCAL), POSSESSIVE, EMPHASIZING, REFLEXIVE, NUMERAL. (See under each heading).

PROPER NOUNS.

A **PROPER NOUN** is the name belonging to one particular person or thing, as distinguished from one belonging to a class. Arthur, Mary, Manchester, are proper nouns. Applied to a noun, "proper" means "own."

PROVISIONAL SUBJECT AND PROVISIONAL OBJECT.

(**ANTICIPATORY** OR **PREPARATORY** SUBJECT OR OBJECT).

"**IT**" is often used as a temporary substitute for the real subject or object. Ex. :

It is healthy to take exercise (real subject : to take exercise).

It is certain that he will come (real subject : that he will come).

I made it clear that the scheme was bound to fail

(real object : that the scheme was bound to fail).

The real subjects and objects, in each case, are in apposition to "**IT**."

PUNCTUATION.

To **PUNCTUATE** is to put points or stops between the various parts of sentences or clauses.—(See pages 59-62).

QUALIFICATION.

QUALIFICATION is the attributing of a quality to a person, thing, action or state. Thus, an adjective qualifies a noun : a good fellow,—and an adverb qualifies a verb : he sings well. An adverb may also qualify an adjective or another adverb (see page 65).

QUALIFYING INFINITIVES.—(See **INFINITIVE**).

QUALITATIVE ADJECTIVES.

These are the same as **DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES**.

(See **ADJECTIVES**).

QUANTITATIVE ADJECTIVES.—(See **ADJECTIVES**).**RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.**

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS are those which denote a reciprocity of action. They are : **EACH OTHER**, when we speak of two persons or things, and **ONE ANOTHER** when we speak of more than two :

William and John write regularly to **each other**.

Men should help **one another**.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

“**Reflexive**” means “bent back.” **REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS** are formed by the addition of the suffix “self” (or “selves”) to the personal pronouns. They are used in the accusative case with certain verbs to denote that the action is reflected back upon the doer :

they deceive themselves ; you have cut yourself.

They are also used after prepositions :

I speak for myself ; he did it by himself.

The emphatic form of a pronoun (do it **YOURSELF** ; he went there **HIMSELF**) is not to be confused with the reflexive form.—(See **EMPHASIZING PRONOUNS**).

REFLEXIVE VERBS.

Transitive verbs used with reflexive pronouns showing that the action is done by the agent to himself are called **REFLEXIVE VERBS**. Thus :

I have cut myself ; do not hurt yourself.

The reflexive pronoun is sometimes understood, as in :

he is dressing (himself).

REGULAR (WEAK) VERBS.

A **REGULAR VERB** is one that forms its past tense and past participle by adding **D**, **ED**, or **T** to the present, with or without vowel change. Regular verbs are also called weak verbs (sleep, slept,—love, loved,—walk, walked).

RELATIVE ADJECTIVES.

WHICH and WHAT may be used as (co-ordinating or subordinating) relative adjectives :

I shall display what strength I possess (all the strength that I possess).

The goods will be ready in a week, within which time they will also be shipped (and within that time . . .).

RELATIVE ADVERBS.

WHERE, WHENCE, WHITHER, WHEREIN, WHEREUPON, WHEN, WHY, are called RELATIVE ADVERBS when they relate to an antecedent and are used to introduce co-ordinate or subordinate clauses (see RELATIVE PRONOUNS) :

I cannot tell you the time when he will arrive (subordinating).

They stopped a few hours at Marseilles, whence (and from there) they left for Nice (co-ordinating).

RELATIVE CLAUSES.

These are adjective-clauses beginning with a relative pronoun (WHO, WHICH, THAT). Ex. :

The man who came to-day will call again shortly.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

A RELATIVE PRONOUN combines the functions of a pronoun and a conjunction. Thus, if the two simple sentences : That is the house,—I have bought the house, are formed into one sentence : That is the house WHICH I have bought, we use the word "which" to connect the two sentences, and to stand in place of the noun "house" in the second clause.

Relative pronouns are so called because they relate to some noun or pronoun which generally precedes them, and which is called the ANTECEDENT ("house," in the above sentence).

The relative pronouns are WHO (whom, whose), WHICH, THAT, and WHAT, and sometimes AS and BUT.

WHO is used of persons ; WHICH and WHAT of things ; THAT of persons or things :

I saw the man **who** spoke to you.

What is the business about **which** you have come ?

This is the house **that** Jack built.

People **that** say this are wrong.

Relative pronouns are either continuative or restrictive.

See CONTINUATIVE and RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

See also COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

RETAINED ACCUSATIVES.

Verbs which have two direct objects (He taught **ME LATIN**), or a direct and an indirect object (They awarded **ME THE PRIZE**) may retain one of the objects in the passive construction.

I was taught Latin by him.

I was awarded the prize by them.

“ Latin ” and “ the prize ” are RETAINED ACCUSATIVES.

SENTENCES.

(See page 66 and ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES).

Note carefully :

- 1.—That the longest sentence can always be divided into subject and predicate, however numerous the clauses which may be contained in either of the two parts ;
- 2.—That there are as many clauses in a sentence as there are **FINITE** verbs. A group of words which contains only an infinitive, a gerund or a participle, is not a **CLAUSE**, but a **PHRASE**.

SENTENCE-WORDS.

The words “ yes ” and “ no,” which are by themselves equivalent to a whole sentence and do not belong to any of the eight parts of speech are called **SENTENCE-WORDS**.

SENTENCE-ADVERBS.—(See page 80).

SIMILE.

A SIMILE is a special kind of comparison between things which are unlike except in one point. The statement of the comparison contains the conjunctions LIKE or AS :

“ This City now doth, like a garment, wear
The beauty of the morning.”

(Distinguish between SIMILE and METAPHOR).

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

(See page 68 and ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES).

SINGULAR NUMBER.—See NUMBER.

SPLIT INFINITIVE.

If an adverb is placed between the “to” of an infinitive and the infinitive itself, as in : to wisely think, to thoroughly understand,—the construction is called a “SPLIT INFINITIVE.”

A split infinitive is generally inelegant. But it should not be confused with another construction which is perfectly correct. It exists only when an adverb is placed between “to” and the verb :

I want you to thoroughly understand this.

There is no split infinitive, however, if we say :

We want this to be thoroughly understood.

Here the adverb merely separates the infinitive “to be” from the participle “understood.”

SOLECISM.

A SOLECISM is a violation of the rules of grammar. Ex. :

“ Between you and I.” (correct : me)

“ The books what you gave me.” (correct : which)

“ Do you see them workmen ? ” (correct : these)

STRONG VERBS.—See IRREGULAR VERBS.

SUBJECT.—(See page 66).

The **SUBJECT** of a sentence may be :

a **NOUN** : John is strong ;

a **PRONOUN** : He is clever ;

an **INFINITIVE** : To do that is to court disaster ;

a **GERUND** : Finding the truth is hard ;

an **ADJECTIVE** used as a **NOUN** : The rich are not always happy ;

a **NOUN-CLAUSE** : How he did it is a mystery.

The **SUBJECT** answers the question **WHO ?** or **WHAT ?**

Who is strong ?—John.

Who is clever ?—He.

What is to court disaster ?—To do that.

What is hard ?—Finding the truth.

Who is not always happy ?—The rich (are not).

What is a mystery ?—How he did it.

SUBJECT-WORD.

The actual word naming the person or thing about which something is said. Ex. : The Indian mail has just arrived ; “ mail ” is the **SUBJECT-WORD**.

SUBJUNCTIVE-EQUIVALENTS.

The verbs **MAY**, **MIGHT**, **SHALL**, **SHOULD**, **WOULD**, used with an infinitive without “ to,” are sometimes equivalent to a subjunctive :

May you prosper !

We are astonished that they should have come.

He said this that we might know what had happened.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The **SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD** is that form of the verb which is used to express doubt, supposition, or uncertainty, viz., when the speaker does not state a fact, event, or state as actually existing, but only as thought of, although it may, in fact, have actual existence.

(See the **FORMS OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD** given in the conjugation of the verb “ TO SEE,” pages 56, 57, 58).

The subjunctive mood is gradually dying out in modern English, and it rarely occurs now in simple sentences. Where it is so used, it expresses a wish :

God save the King ! So perish all his enemies !

In subordinate clauses, the subjunctive is generally introduced by IF, THAT, LEST, THOUGH, ALTHOUGH, UNLESS, HOWEVER, EXCEPT. But if there is no doubt or uncertainty, the subjunctive is not used after these conjunctions. Ex. :

If I **am** right (which you admit is the case), why do you not follow my advice ? (" am " is the indicative).

Even when there is uncertainty, the indicative is more generally used after IF and UNLESS :

If he **is** in town (I do not know whether he is or not), I will call upon him (" is " is the indicative).

To use the subjunctive " be " (If he **BE** in town . . .) would be correct, but rather pedantic.

The following are examples of uses of the subjunctive in subordinate clauses :

I wish I **were** you.

It is requested that answers **be** written clearly.

I wondered if he **were** the manager.

If that **were** true, I should be sorry (but it is untrue).

She looked as if she **were** ill.

It is essential that this **be** done at once.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.—(See pages 70-71).

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

(See page 71).

A SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTION connects a subordinate noun-clause or adverb-clause to the main clause in a sentence.
Ex. :

I do not believe that he **did** it.

" That he did it " : NOUN-CLAUSE.

He will come if he **can**.

" If he can " : ADVERB-CLAUSE.

The following are SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS :

after, although, as, because, before, if, since, than, that, (in order) that, though, till, unless, until, when, whenever, where, while, why.

SUFFIX.

A SUFFIX is a syllable added to a root to modify its meaning :

child (root) : childhood, childish, childishly, childless.

SUPERLATIVE DEGREE OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

When we compare more than two things or groups of things and state that one thing or group possesses a quality in a greater degree than the others, or in the highest possible degree, the adjective or adverb used for the purpose of comparison is said to be in the SUPERLATIVE :

light	lighter	lightest
soon	sooner	soonest
(POSITIVE)	(COMPARATIVE)	(SUPERLATIVE)

The termination "est," added to the positive in order to form the superlative, cannot generally be added to words of more than two syllables ; "most" or "the most" is then used before the adjective :

extravagant	more extravagant	most extravagant, or the most extravagant
(POSITIVE)	(COMPARATIVE)	(SUPERLATIVE)

SYLLABLES.

A SYLLABLE is a vowel or group of letters pronounced by a single effort of the voice :

cre-a-tion, pi-e-ty.

SYNONYMS.

Words which have almost the same meaning : battle, conflict, contest ; acute, keen, sharp,—are called SYNONYMS.

SYNTAX.

SYNTAX is that part of grammar which deals with the relations of words in a sentence.

“Syntax” means : arrangement.

TAUTOLOGY.

A repetition of the same idea or statement in other words.

“He continued to remain at home.”

(See **PLEONASM**).

TENSES.

A **TENSE** is that form of a verb which shows :

- (a) whether the action denoted by the verb relates to the past, present, or future :

I write, I wrote, I shall write ;

- (b) whether the action denoted by the verb is, was, or will be in progress :

I am writing, I was writing, I shall be writing ;

- (c) whether the action denoted by the verb is, was, or will be completed :

I have written ; I had written ; I shall have written.

(See **CONTINUOUS TENSE-FORMS OF VERBS**, and **PERFECT TENSES**, and also **PRESENT TENSE**, **PAST TENSE**, **FUTURE TENSE**).

“Tense” means : time.

TRANSITIVE VERBS.

A verb is said to be transitive, or used transitively, when it denotes that an action passes from an agent or doer to an object (person or thing). Thus :

(AGENT)	(ACTION)	(OBJECT)
Robert	hits	the ball.
I	will write	a letter.

“Transitive” means : going beyond.

VERB-ADJECTIVES.—(See PARTICIPLES).**VERB-NOUNS.**—(See GERUND and INFINITIVE).**VERBS.**—(See page 64).

A VERB is a word by means of which something is said of a person or a thing : John left yesterday ; the sun shines. Something is said (left yesterday, shines) about a person (John) and a thing (the sun). “Left” and “shines” are verbs.

The verb is a TELLING WORD, and the most essential part of speech. No group of words can form a sentence without a verb expressed or understood.

VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION.**1.—Intransitive verbs of incomplete predication.**

Some verbs like BE, SEEM, LOOK, BECOME, BE MADE, BE APPOINTED, BE SUPPOSED, BE CALLED, BE NAMED, do not make complete sense unless they are followed by a predicative adjective, noun, or noun-equivalent :

He looks strange.

He has been appointed governor of the State.

That is what he says.

Such verbs are called VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION because they cannot form a complete predicate by themselves.

2.—Transitive verbs of incomplete predication.

Similarly, some transitive verbs, such as MAKE, APPOINT, CREATE, THINK, CONSIDER, SUPPOSE, BELIEVE, etc., do not make complete sense without a predicative word referring to the object :

The King made him an Earl.

Do you consider her an efficient shorthand-typist ?

These verbs take, therefore, a double accusative (him, Earl ; her, shorthand-typist). They used to be called “factive

verbs." The predicative words "an Earl" and "an efficient shorthand-typist" are sometimes called **FACTITIVE OBJECTS**.

(See **PREDICATIVE ADJECTIVES, NOUNS and PRONOUNS**).

VOCATIVE CASE. (NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS).

This is the case used when we address a person (or thing), as in :

Ladies and gentlemen, I will now read the report.

VOICE.

In grammar, the **VOICE** is that form of a verb which shows whether the subject of a sentence does an action or suffers it. Accordingly, a transitive verb has two voices : an **ACTIVE VOICE** (the boy hit the ball), and a **PASSIVE VOICE** (the ball was hit by the boy).

VOWELS.

The sound produced by the unobstructed passage of the breath through the vocal cords is called a **VOWEL SOUND**. A, E, I, O, U, are vowels.

y is sometimes a vowel : party, deny.

w, combined with another vowel, forms a diphthong : how, few.

At other times, viz., at the beginning of a syllable, w and y sound almost like consonants : win, wet ; yet, you.

w and y are commonly called **SEMI-VOWELS**.

WEAK VERBS.—See **REGULAR VERBS**.



NOTE.

The following pages (123-131) are FOR REFERENCE ONLY.

PARSING.

All that is essential on PARSING and ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES will be found here, and although the matter dealt with is merely a development of the subjects treated on pages 63-71, students should clearly understand that **THEY NEED NOT LEARN THIS PART.**

"HE WANTS THE BOOK."

Anyone who has the slightest knowledge of grammar can describe the words in the above sentence as pronoun, verb, article, and noun.

This, however, is by no means a full grammatical account, because nothing is said of the form of each word and its relationship to other words in the sentence. For a complete description the following particulars must be supplied :

HE, pronoun,—personal, 3rd person, singular, nominative case, subject of "wants" ;

WANTS, verb,—transitive, weak conjugation, active voice, indicative mood, present indefinite tense, 3rd person, singular, agreeing with its subject "he" ;

THE, demonstrative adjective (called "definite article"), qualifying "book" ;

BOOK, noun,—common, singular, accusative case, direct object of "wants."

With these additions, each word is said to be fully parsed.

To PARSE is, therefore :

- (a) to state the part of speech to which a word belongs ;
- (b) to describe its form (i.e., its person, number, case ; voice, tense, mood ; etc.) ;
- (c) to explain how it is related to other words in the same sentence.

The object of parsing is to enable a student to ascertain whether he understands the grammatical function of words in a sentence.

NOTE :

- that it is unnecessary to state person when parsing a noun, because a noun is always 3rd person, except in the vocative case ;
- that the antecedent should be stated in parsing a relative pronoun (WHO, WHICH, THAT) ;
- that a compound verb, i.e., a form containing the auxiliary BE or HAVE with a participle (he is loved,—he has replied), or the other auxiliaries : SHALL, WILL, SHOULD, WOULD, MAY, MIGHT, DO, with an infinitive (he shall go), must be treated as ONE verb ;
- that care should be taken, when dealing with such words as : AFTER, AS, MORE, ONE, SINCE, THAT, THAN, WHICH, WHAT, WHEN, which belong to more than one part of speech, to ascertain the function they perform in the sentence. For example :

Which is yours ?

(“ which ” is here an INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN)

Which house is yours ?

(“ which ” is here an INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVE)

Is this the house which you bought ?

(“ which ” is here a RELATIVE PRONOUN)

EXAMPLES OF PARSING.

1.—All that glitters is not gold.

ALL,—indefinite pronoun, singular, subject of “ is ” ;

THAT,—pronoun, relative, 3rd person, singular, agreeing with its antecedent “ all,” subject of “ glitters ” ;

GLITTERS,—verb, intransitive, weak, active voice, indicative, present indefinite, 3rd person, singular, agreeing with its subject "that";

IS,—verb, intransitive, strong, active voice, indicative, present indefinite, 3rd person, singular, agreeing with its subject "all";

NOT,—adverb of negation, qualifying "is";

GOLD,—noun, common, singular, predicative word referring to the subject "all".

2.—He doubted whether they would feel much happier in their new and beautiful home.

HE,—pronoun, personal, 3rd person, singular, nominative, subject of "doubted";

DOUBTED,—verb, transitive, weak, active voice, indicative, past indefinite tense, 3rd person singular, agreeing with its subject "he";

WHETHER,—interrogative adverb, joining "he doubted" to "they would feel . . . home";

THEY,—pronoun, personal, 3rd person, plural, nominative, subject of "would feel";

WOULD FEEL,—verb of incomplete predication, intransitive, weak, active voice, future in the past, 3rd person, plural, agreeing with its subject "they";

MUCH,—adverb of degree, qualifying "happier";

HAPPIER,—adjective, descriptive, comparative degree, predicative word referring to the subject "they";

IN,—preposition, governing "home";

THEIR,—adjective, possessive, qualifying "home";

NEW,—adjective, descriptive, qualifying "home";

AND,—conjunction, joining "new" to "beautiful";

BEAUTIFUL,—adjective, descriptive, qualifying "home";

HOME,—noun, common, singular, accusative case, governed by the preposition "in."

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

To analyse a sentence is to break it into its component parts. If the sentence is simple, viz., if it contains only one subject and one predicate, the first step in the analysis consists in the separation of subject and predicate. Ex. :

SUBJECT.

The King

All the workmen in this factory

PREDICATE.

made him a Knight.

will lay down their tools
to-morrow morning.

For a complete analysis, however, more is required. The subject-word, the verb, and the object, or the predicative word or words, should be stated, as well as all adjectives, adjective-equivalents, adverbs, or adverb-equivalents which qualify the subject, object, or verb. Thus, the above sentences should be analysed as follows :

SUBJECT.

PREDICATE.

Subject-word	Adj. or adj.-equiv.	Verb	Adverbs or adv.-equiv.	Obj.	Adj. or adj. equiv.	Predicative words
(The) King	—	made	—	him	—	(a) Knight
(The) workmen	all, in this factory	will lay	down to-morrow morning	tools	their	

It should be observed that any word or phrase qualifying the noun or noun-equivalent forming the subject or object is described as an adjective or adjective-equivalent, and that any word or phrase qualifying the verb in the sentence is an adverb or adverb-equivalent.

Sentences are simple, double or multiple, or complex. The above sentences, consisting of only one subject and one predicate, are simple, and they are fully analysed as shown in the second

example. This kind of analysis, known as DETAILED analysis, can be applied to every single clause in a sentence containing several clauses, viz., in a double, multiple, or complex sentence.

The full analysis of double, multiple and complex sentences includes therefore :

- (1) clausal analysis;
- (2) detailed analysis of each clause.

DOUBLE AND MULTIPLE SENTENCES.

(See also pages 71 and 72).

A sentence may consist of two or more main clauses, (i.e., clauses which are independent and of equal rank) connected by a co-ordinating conjunction (AND, BUT, OR, NOR, FOR). The sentence is double if it has two such clauses, and multiple if it has more than two.

DOUBLE SENTENCE : He tried his best (1), and very nearly succeeded (2).

MULTIPLE SENTENCE : He tried his best (1), and very nearly succeeded (2), but at the last minute his foot slipped (3), and he fell down the steps (4).

In the full analysis of such sentences the co-ordinate clauses are first stated ; then each is treated in detail like a simple sentence.

COMPLEX SENTENCES. (See also pages 69, 70 & 71).

A **COMPLEX** sentence is one which consists of a main clause with one or more subordinate clauses. Ex. :

We still doubt whether the Members who have decided to leave the House when the Bill is introduced will carry their resolution into effect.

In the **CLAUSAL** analysis of a complex sentence, the main clause should be stated first ; then each subordinate clause should be described, according to its nature, as a noun-clause,

an adjective-clause, or an adverb-clause (OF TIME, PLACE, CAUSE, PURPOSE, RESULT, CONDITION, CONCESSION OR COMPARISON).

The foregoing complex sentence should, therefore, be analysed as follows :

MAIN CLAUSE :	We still doubt
NOUN-CLAUSE, object of "doubt" :	whether the members will carry their resolution into effect
ADJECTIVE-CLAUSE, qualifying "members" :	who have decided to leave the House
ADVERB-CLAUSE OF TIME, qualifying "leave" :	when the Bill is introduced.

This first analysis being completed, it remains to analyse each clause in detail, as shown in the analysis of the simple sentence on page 126.

In connection with clausal analysis, the following remarks are of importance :

1.—THERE ARE AS MANY CLAUSES IN A SENTENCE AS THERE ARE VERBS. Note, however, that verb-nouns (gerunds and infinitives) and verb-adjectives (participles) introduce phrases, not clauses. Ex. :

Turning to the left, he saw at once the village church.

I do not like walking so fast.

"Turning to the left" is an adjective-equivalent qualifying "he"; "walking so fast" contains a gerund, "walking," object of "do like." Both are phrases, not clauses.

2.—A nominative absolute is an adverb-equivalent. Ex. :

Tide and weather permitting, the boat will sail at noon.

"Tide and weather permitting" means : "if time and weather permit," and is an adverb-equivalent of condition. It is a phrase, not a clause.

3.—WHO, relative pronoun, and WHERE, WHEN, relative adverbs, introduce subordinate clauses in sentences like the following :

The man who called this morning will return to-morrow.

Tell me the place where he is to be found.

He thought of the time when he was only a boy.

The clauses in heavy type are all adjective-clauses.

But if WHO means "and he (she, they, it)," WHERE "and there," WHEN "and then," the clauses introduced by these words are co-ordinate :

I saw your brother, who (and he) told me that you could not agree to the proposal.

Go to the X--hotel, where (and there) you will find him.

I shall be in town next week, when (and then) I will attend to the matter.

4.—When "IT" is used as provisional subject or object, it is followed by a noun-clause in apposition. Ex. :

It is certain that he will come.

"That he will come" is a noun-clause in apposition to "it," provisional subject.

We think it improbable that he will come.

"That he will come" is a noun-clause in apposition to "it," provisional object.

5.—In elliptical sentences, the parts omitted should be expressed.

I am older than you (are old).

Will he come or not ? (or will he not come ?)

6.—Exclamations and words in the vocative case are not stated in detailed analysis.

EXAMPLES OF CLAUSAL AND DETAILED ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

1.—The good you do is not lost though you forget it.

This sentence contains three finite verbs, and therefore three clauses.

- (a) The good is not lost
(b) (which) you do
(c) though you forget it

MAIN CLAUSE

ADJECTIVE-CLAUSE qualifying "good"

ADVERB-CLAUSE of CONCESSION qualifying "is lost"

DETAILED ANALYSIS.

SUBJECT.

PREDICATE.

CONNECTING WORD	SUBJECT WORD	ADJECTIVES OF ADJECT.-EQUIV.	VERB	ADVERBS OF ADVERB-EQUIV.	OBJECT	ADJECTIVES OF ADJECT.-EQUIV.	PREDICATIVE WORDS
(a) —	(the) good	clause (b)	is lost	1. not 2. clause (c)	---	---	---
(b) (which)	you	---	do	---	(which)	---	---
(c) though	you	---	forget	---	it	---	---

2.—It is probable that your old friend who consulted me yesterday will refuse to follow my advice unless you make him realize that his very life is at stake.

There are five finite verbs in this sentence, and therefore five clauses.

(continued on next page)

- (a) It is probable
 (b) that your old friend will refuse to follow my advice
 (c) who consulted me yesterday
 (d) unless you make him realize
 (e) that his very life is at stake
- MAIN CLAUSE
 NOUN-CLAUSE in apposition to "it"
 ADJECTIVE-CLAUSE qualifying "friend"
 ADVERB-CLAUSE of CONDITION qualifying "will refuse"
 NOUN-CLAUSE object of "realize"

DETAILED ANALYSIS.

SUBJECT.		PREDICATE.					
CONNECTING WORD	SUBJECT WORD	ADJECTIVES OF ADJECT.-EQUIV.	VERB	ADVERB OF ADVERB-EQUIV.	OBJECT	ADJECTIVE OF ADJECT.-EQUIV.	PREDICATIVE WORDS
(a) —	It	—	is	—	—	—	probable
(b) that	friend	1. your old 2. clause (c)	will refuse	clause (d)	to follow my advice	—	—
(c) who	who	—	consulted	yesterday	me	—	—
(d) unless	you	—	make	—	1 him 2 realize	—	—
(e) that	life	his very	is	—	—	—	at stake

HINTS ON STYLE.

Two journalists are writing for their respective newspapers a description of some event which they have just witnessed : what likelihood is there that the two reports will be framed in absolutely identical terms ? Of course, none whatever. We know that each reporter will narrate the event after his own fashion, so that the two accounts will show differences, if not in the facts themselves, at least in the manner of stating them,—that is to say, in the style. We may therefore say that style is the personal and characteristic manner in which a writer expresses himself.

It goes without saying that very few of us can ever hope to attain that perfection which we admire and enjoy so much in the style of the great writers. But if we cannot all create literary masterpieces, we can all, at any rate, cultivate the faculty of uttering our thoughts not only with correctness, but with simplicity and clearness. It must be admitted that these qualities are only an indispensable **minimum** ; yet our style can never be bad if they are present.

We have dealt in a previous section with common errors in expression and grammar. It will be helpful to give now a few words of advice dealing more particularly with the means of achieving simplicity and clearness in style.

I.

Never use any word you do not fully understand. When in doubt consult a dictionary, or leave the word alone.

Do not use such words as : albeit, peradventure, I wot, I trow, prithee, etc.

Use foreign words as seldom as possible, and never for the mere sake of exhibiting your knowledge.

As already pointed out, such adjectives as "stupendous," "unprecedented," "amazing," "monstrous," etc., should be kept in reserve for the rare cases in which they are really appropriate. Stupendous events are not frequent, neither are monsters very common.

You may think that "vicinity," "initiate," "evinced," "prior to," etc., are much more refined than "neighbourhood," "begin," "show," "before." They are not. It is, of course, quite possible to conceive cases where they might be used to avoid repetition, if no other synonyms were available ; but this does not destroy the rule that simple words should be preferred to more pretentious ones.

A wrong notion of refinement in style might also tempt you to use hackneyed words or sentences, circumlocutions, stale metaphors, etc. Do not fall in this trap. "The fragrant weed," "the cup that cheers," "last but not least," "slowly but surely," and other phrases of this kind produce the same effect as a suit which is of good cut and good material, but which has been worn every day for five years. Simplicity possesses a refinement of its own, while a misguided attempt at elegance may lead us into the ridiculous.

Slang words : "awfully," "fed up," "rotten," "out to," etc., may not be quite out of place in conversation ; but they are vulgar in writing. True simplicity is not attained by imitating colloquial freedom.

VERBOSITY is a serious defect. How can a sentence be direct and forcible if ten words are used to express an idea which might be completely and clearly expressed in five ? It can never be wrong to avoid unnecessary wordiness ; if we describe a spade as "an agricultural implement used to till the ground," we sin against brevity and good taste. Verbosity is not refinement.

Note that particular terms are more striking than general ones. "Hammer" and "plough," for instance, being names of particular things, produce at once more vivid and precise mental pictures than the words "tool" and "implement," names of a whole class. For the same reason, concrete words should be used, when possible, in preference to abstract expressions, which are always less forcible and less quickly and distinctly translated into mental images.

II.

A sentence that requires an effort on the part of the reader if it is to be understood is not clear enough. Clearness is obtained by the use of words which convey our thought directly and exactly. It may be impaired or even destroyed by undue wordiness, unnecessary abstract terms, or by one of the other faults indicated below.

Do not forget that a sentence is ONE thought fully expressed. It must, therefore, be ONE in logic and in grammar. It should state ONE main idea ; no parts should be missing, and all parts should be properly connected. You would not expect a motor to work well if it lacked some of its essential parts, or if its parts were badly joined.

The following are some examples of badly constructed sentences :—

ESSENTIAL PART LACKING :

I know one or two players who, if they are not more careful, their present success will not last very long.

"Who" will do (or suffer) what ?—"Who" should introduce a (subordinate) clause ; it introduces none. We can say : whose present success will not last, but not : who their present success will not last.

FAULTY CONNECTION BETWEEN THE PARTS OF THE SENTENCE :

This may be and is often due to :

- (a) the use of pronouns which do not refer CLEARLY to their antecedents :

The lorry-driver told the magistrate that HE first saw the motorist as HE was turning the corner.

Who was turning the corner,—the lorry-driver or the motorist ?

- (b) the use of pronouns which have no reference to a preceding noun, this being frequently the case with "it" :

When he threatened to resign, they said they would accept IT.

What noun does that "it" stand for ?

- (c) the introduction of clauses which have no NATURAL connection with the other parts of the sentence :

I met Robinson, who seemed to suffer from a cold, and has just been appointed secretary to his company.

What connection is there between Robinson's cold and his appointment as secretary ? This last fact should have been stated in a separate sentence.

- (d) mere slovenliness in the use of connecting words :

Customers are provided with shaving utensils and kept for private use.

If the words "which are" had been substituted for "and," the barber who exhibits the above warning would not have transformed a harmless notice into a threat of slavery.

- (e) failure to put the words, phrases, or clauses in their right place, viz., near the words they qualify. This fault sometimes produces ludicrous results :

Private X— was punished severely for beating a horse that was feeding with a pitchfork.

Mr. N—, with a few natives, was trying to drive into the open a lion that had taken shelter under bushes in a stream in order to take a photograph.

In the heat of composition, we are apt to mix our metaphors. But if we adopt the wise plan of always revising what we have written, we shall not be guilty of sentences like the following :

The Company finds itself saddled with a white elephant.

The flood-gates of revolt and disorder are advancing hand-in-hand.

Criticisms have no effect on him ; they are like water on a duck's back ; they go in at one ear and out at the other.

A sentence, besides being grammatically correct, should "sound well" when read aloud. Many sentences are spoilt by such errors as :

1—bad rhythm :

They said that they would assuredly, and very shortly, too, retaliate.

"Retaliate" ends the sentence too abruptly. Write : They said that they would assuredly retaliate, and very shortly, too.

2—the inharmonious repetition of the same sounds :

The official sanction given to his prompt and vigorous action was hailed with great satisfaction by the whole population of the district.

3—the use of too many prepositions, this being particularly unpleasant when several genitive-phrases follow each other closely :

This is generally the case in connection with many of the developments of the new policy of the Board of Trade.

4—the use of two or more relatives which have not the same antecedent :

They have built a house which is pleasantly situated on a hill which overlooks the lake and the woods which surround it.

The faculty of recognizing such errors is a gift we all possess ; if we do not use it, we have only ourselves to blame. A little

attention and the simple process of reading aloud what we have written would nearly always save us from falling into such mistakes as those which have just been pointed out.

The foregoing is mostly advice on what NOT to do. Practical suggestions for acquiring a good style, however, can be given in a few words : familiarize yourself with the best authors, and imitate their methods of expression.

Read, and read constantly, and whether your tastes be directed towards history or other branches of literature, read **FIRST CLASS AUTHORS ONLY**. Above all, read **ALoud** as much as possible ; you can at least do this in the privacy of your own room if you do not care to read to a friend.

Do not waste time on books which are inferior in subject matter, and which, moreover, can be of no assistance to anyone in the formation of style.

In addition to reading—and this is most important—take a page from a good work and copy it word for word. Continue this for a week or two, selecting a fresh page daily. Next read over a short passage from the same work, and endeavour to write it from memory. Compare your rendering with the original, and note your own defects.

Practise in this way for some weeks, and you will notice a wonderful improvement in your manner of speaking as well as in your style of writing. Constant association with the best books provides a student with the surest means of expressing himself, not only correctly, but with originality and distinction.

The author we are inclined to recommend above all others in connection with the foregoing advice is Robert Louis Stevenson. Other authors recommended are Macaulay, Froude, Arnold Bennett, Joseph Conrad, Rose Macaulay, A. G. Gardiner, etc.



ADDITIONAL EXERCISES.

Students should endeavour to make the required alterations in the following sentences as far as possible without consulting the pages indicated in brackets. After finishing their work, they should compare it, sentence by sentence, with the KEY which is appended to the exercises, in order to make sure that they have not omitted any correction.

I.

1. You should return this parcel back to the sender. (p. 6)
2. The words actually used by him were different to those that have been reported. (p. 8)
3. Had he foreseen that this would eventuate, he would have acted different. (pp. 8 & 9)
4. Her health failed, due to a long residence in tropical countries. (p. 9)
5. A comparatively few people witnessed the accident. (p. 10)
6. We had hardly finished than they requested us to leave. (pp. 10 & 32)
7. A strange looking individual has just knocked at the door. (p. 11)
8. If you are so tired, why do you not lay down on the bed? (p. 12)
9. They have acted exactly like she expected them to act. (p. 12)
10. This precaution is mostly taken to prevent people crowding the hall. (pp. 13 & 29)
11. Oblivious to the fact that both were present, he spoke his mind quite freely. (p. 13)
12. You should only smoke your cigar when you have entirely finished the work. (p. 14)

13. He prefers staying at home rather than travelling. (p. 15)
 14. This is dear, but much more preferable than cheaper articles. (p. 16)
 15. Did they not consider this as quite convincing? (p. 17)
 16. I shall let you know my opinion of the samples as soon as I have received the same. (p. 17)
 17. Gas light has been substituted in this place by electric light. (p. 18)
 18. I know that these people are very stubborn; but my words are not addressed to such. (p. 18)
 19. Nothing transpired during the last few years that could justify these vexatious enactments. (p. 19)
 20. The resolution was opposed by various of the shareholders. (p. 19)
 21. I was very annoyed by his reply. (p. 19)
 22. He will write you at the earliest opportunity. (p. 20)
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II.

1. Either of these books are entirely suitable for your purpose. (p. 21)
2. Neither he nor his brother have any desire to give up the attempt. (p. 21)
3. Each of the disputants have a right to their opinion. (p. 22)
4. I am not one of those who dislikes these kind of people. (p. 21 No. 1 & p. 23)
5. Everybody must be guided by their own opinion in the matter. (p. 22)

6. Would you act in this way if you were her ? (p. 24)
7. Between you and I, this will never do. (p. 24)
8. They discovered a very ingenious method, but which was far from being a commercial success. (p. 25)
9. Who do you think I saw this morning ? (p. 25)
10. Whom does he suppose is going to do the work ? (p. 25)
11. London is greater than any town. (p. 26)
12. He is much richer than them. (p. 26)
13. Having acquired a long experience in this branch of the tailoring trade, my lounge suits cannot fail to give the fullest satisfaction. (pp. 27 & 28)
14. Seated in his garden, his thoughts turned to the dear friends whom he could no longer hope to meet. (pp. 27 & 28)
15. The difficulty of my work is greater than yours. (p. 27)
16. You cannot stop me going if I have my father's permission. (pp. 18 & 29)
17. I would feel much happier if I could be sure of that. (p. 31)
18. If I do not hurry I will not be there in time. (p. 31)
19. Is this not the best thing they ever have or ever can do ? (p. 31)
20. Has he not delayed instead of hastened the decision ? (p. 32)

KEY TO ADDITIONAL EXERCISES.

I.

1. You should return this parcel to the sender.
2. The words actually used by him were different from those that have been reported.
3. Had he foreseen that this would happen, he would have acted differently.
4. Her health failed, owing to (or : as a result of) a long residence in tropical countries.
5. Comparatively few people witnessed the accident.
6. We had hardly finished when (or : no sooner finished than) they requested us to leave.
7. A strange looking person (or : man,—woman), has just knocked at the door.
8. If you are so tired, why do you not lie down on the bed ?
9. They have acted exactly as she expected them to act.
10. This precaution is taken mainly (or : chiefly) to prevent people from crowding the hall.
11. Oblivious of the fact that both were present, he spoke his mind quite freely.
12. You should smoke your cigar only when you have entirely finished the work.
13. He prefers staying at home to travelling (or : he likes to stay at home rather than travel).
14. This is dear, but much preferable to cheaper articles.
15. Did they not regard this as quite convincing ? (or : consider this quite convincing ?)

16. I shall let you know my opinion of the samples as soon as I have received them (or : as soon as they are received,—to hand,—in my possession).
 17. Electric light has been substituted in these premises for gas light (or : Gas light has been replaced . . . by electric light).
 18. I know that these people are very stubborn ; but my words are not addressed to such persons (or : to people of that kind).
 19. Nothing occurred during the last few years that could justify these vexatious enactments.
 20. The resolution was opposed by several of the shareholders.
 21. I was greatly (or : very much) annoyed by his reply.
 22. He will write to you at the earliest opportunity.
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II.

1. Either of these books is entirely suitable for your purpose.
2. Neither he nor his brother has any desire to give up the attempt.
3. Each of the disputants has a right to his opinion.
4. I am not one of those who dislike people of this kind.
5. Everybody must be guided by his own opinion in the matter.
6. Would you act in this way if you were she (or : in her place) ?
7. Between you and me, this will never do.
8. They discovered a very ingenious method, which was, however, far from being a commercial success (or : but it was far from being a commercial success).

9. Whom do you think I saw this morning ?
10. Who does he suppose is going to do the work ?
11. London is greater than any other town.
12. He is much richer than they (are).
13. Having acquired a long experience in this branch of the tailoring trade, I feel confident that my lounge suits cannot fail to give satisfaction (or : As I have acquired . . . my lounge suits cannot fail . . .).
14. While he sat in his garden, his thoughts turned to the dear friends he could no longer hope to meet (or : Seated in his garden, he thought of the dear friends . . .).
15. The difficulty of my work is greater than that of yours (or better : My work is more difficult than yours).
16. You cannot prevent me from going if I have my father's permission (or : You cannot prevent (or oppose) my going . . .).
17. I should feel much happier if I could be sure of that.
18. If I do not hurry I shall not be there in time.
19. Is this not the best thing they have ever done or can ever do ?
20. Has he not delayed the decision instead of hastening it ?

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